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ABSTRACT

Fifteen papers from the University of South Africa's Conference on Distance Education are presented on professional education and practical training. They include: "The Art Work: From Concept to Realization" (Leon du Plessis and Koos van der Watt); "Distance Education for Industrial, Professional, and Practical Training" (Jacob van der Westhuizen); "From Theory to Practice: Educating for Vocational Excellence" (T.J. van Heerden); "Professional Development in Vocational Courses such as Social Work with Special Reference to Laboratory Work" (J.J. Jacobs); "The Role of Distance Education in Post Graduate Studies of Education in the Republic of South Africa" (G.S. Harley); "Practice Teaching in Special Education--A Challenge for Distance Education" (H.M. Gerber); "Accountable Teacher Training in University Distance Education" (P.L. de Jager); "The Development of Educational Management as a Field of Study at UNISA" (Chris van Wyk); "Teaching Preprimary Teachers through Distance Education" (H.M. Grobler); "A Strategic Approach to Management Education in a Distance Teaching Environment" (E.W. Neuland et al.); "Teaching Accounting by Teletuition" (J.G. Huisamen); "Teaching Auditing in a Distance Education Environment" (H.J.S. Vorster et al.); "Teletuition in Undergraduate Legal Education" (W.J. Hosten); "Towards Integration in Legal Education: An Introduction to Practice" (Joan Church); and "The Teaching of the Practical Component of Physics in Distance Education" (E.C. Reynhardt). (LB)

PAPERS 4.2

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Professional education and practical training at a distance

DISTANCE EDUCATION IN
SOUTHERN AFRICA:
PREPARING FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

18-21 MAY 1987

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PREFACE

The conference papers to be presented at the University of South Africa's Conference on Distance Education are contained in a number of volumes for easy reference. The papers have been collected according to basic themes as follows:

The theory and practice of distance education	Papers 1
Issues in education and distance education	Papers 2
Media and technology in distance education	Papers 3.1, 3.2
Professional education and practical training at a distance	Papers 4.1, 4.2
Administration and student support in distance education	Papers 5
Systems and strategies in distance education	Papers 6

This is Volume 4.2 of the papers. The table of contents lists the papers in this volume in order of abstract numbers.

In the alphabetical index all participants' names, the abstract number of their paper, the session allocated and the volume in which the paper is published can be found. Not mentioned are papers that may be published in Volume 7 entitled "Late Submissions".

F. van den Bogaerde
CONFERENCE CHAIRMAN



KEY

ABSTRACTS

1000 SERIES — Participants from Africa and Abroad

2000 SERIES — Participants from southern Africa

3000 SERIES — Participants from the
University of South Africa

3100 — Administrative and Professional

3200 — Faculty of Arts

3300 — Faculty of Education

3400 — Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences

3500 — Faculty of Law

3600 — Faculty of Science

3700 — Faculty of Theology

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PAPERS

THE ART WORK : FROM CONCEPT TO REALIZATION

Leon du Plessis and Koos van der Watt
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

Scepticism often surrounds the idea of teaching Fine Arts, a largely practical discipline, at a distance. This paper will examine fine arts and the pragmatics which govern its teaching within a distance-teaching context. The presentation of the paper will take the form of discussion of the nature of the art work, from its conception to its realization, and will be accompanied by a series of colour slides, and an art exhibition of student work.

As an introduction to the topic, the educational needs of the art student, the role of the artist, and the methods adopted by the Department to promote individualized visual creative development will be examined.

At a time when art education, and tertiary art programmes in particular, are undergoing penetrating reassessments, Unisa offers students a viable alternative. The Department offers prospective artists who are unable to, or who do not wish to study at a residential art institution, the opportunity of formal training in the visual arts.

The task of educating a contemporary artist today is much more complex than it was in the past. The presumption that art is an inborn inherited 'talent' is fallacious. Artistic or creative development is not an automatic consequence of life. Instead, it is a process which is affected by context, environment and social circumstances. The process of perceptual learning, and visual literacy in general, form the central concern of art education.

Art educators are obliged to ask how to provide for the needs of the art student. Until fairly recently, the art teacher's role was seen to be a relatively passive one of merely nurturing artistic expression while harbouring the constant fear that intervention would inhibit the true 'flow' of creativity. Most current thought envisages the teacher's role as more extended: the art teacher is now a guide, promoter and confidant, and has regained some of the stature of the 'master' of old. However, this task has become further clouded by the increased specialization which governs

virtually all contemporary disciplines. No single 'master' exists whom a student can emulate, or turn to, for sanction of his or her creative endeavours. Qualitative evaluation is now clearly the domain of art critics, theorists, aestheticians and art historians. The role of the art educator has therefore been modified and he or she must ensure that the student is taught to evaluate, become self-critical and sharpen his or her insights by broadening both practical and theoretical experience through exposure to a wide artistic milieu.

The role of the contemporary artist:

In any discussion on the teaching of art cognisance must be taken of the essential roles and attributes of the contemporary artist. Perhaps the single most vital attribute a contemporary artist should possess is a heightened awareness of the social, physical and cultural environments in which he or she finds him or herself. This demands that the artist recognizes the social role of his or her profession which questions the principles and values of that society. This position, understandably, is a precarious one. A tenuous balance is required in order to function as a mirror of one's own world. It is this balance which often brands the artist as a reactionary or non-conformist. Individuals who exhibit a sensitivity to the inherent biases of their environment appear subversive to those who are not equally sensitive to, or critical of, these issues. Countering this ostensibly objective view of the artist is the subjectivity characterizing any creative statement. The artist fulfills the roles of social commentator, politician, interpreter and often propagandist. This task, as diagnostician of the ills of society, validates his or her position within a society. Society has awarded the artist a specialist function which is far removed from the earlier roles of decorator, documentator and narrator of social events, tasks which are now performed by the media. The artist has become a specialist multi-disciplinarian who comments on the condition of man and mankind's constructs.

A comprehension of the artist's position and role in culture is equally necessary. An artist functions within a society and lives in cultures which possess often pervasive examples or remnants of previous artistic effort. An artist can choose to remain firmly rooted within the limits imposed by an inherited tradition, operating from within this tradition, or can choose to reject tradition and explore new ideas. It is

self-evident that the artist has to be acutely attuned to inherited historical perspectives if any of the above choices are to be exercised effectively, and to lend the activity of art-making academically based credibility.

The Nature of the creative exercises:

As discussed above, the task of the art teacher has changed and is no longer the limited vision of a person nurturing a talent within the protective confines of an 'art environment'. The art teacher today is as much concerned with widening and ordering the student's creative experience, as with challenging preconceptions and expanding the consciousness of his or her students. The creative act can no longer be conceived as the indeterminate out-pouring of pent-up emotional experience. Art education becomes a process through which thinking is fostered and thinking is not separated from feeling. In this context, John Dewey stated more than five decades ago:

"To think effectively in terms of relations of qualities is as severe a demand upon thought as to think in terms of symbols, verbal and mathematical ... the production of a work of genuine art probably demands more intelligence than does most of the so-called thinking that goes on among those who pride themselves as being intellectuals". (1)

This, and similar arguments posit the creative act as a particular type of intelligence. Creativity characterizes any activity in which we are forced to make decisions, exercise choices and organise thoughts. The creative act is thus no longer some obscure, or mysterious capacity awarded to us at birth, but is a phenomenon that can be developed. Creativity is a mode of human action that grows through experience.

The more or less 'standard' conception of art being only a peripheral activity also needs to be addressed. Art must be able to assume a valued place in man's experience. It is not merely a series of means to achieve desirable ends. Art is the reminder that the act of looking intensely, of opening starved sensibilities to the environment, yields qualitative advantages to life's experience. Educationalists are extremely conscious of social inequalities and learning disabilities. When, for example, a learning disability occurs, remedial therapy is applied to rectify or

* DEWEY, John. Art as Creative Experience, New York : Minton, Blach and Co., 1934.

correct the disability. However, individuals who remain anaesthetised to aesthetic vision, or who can be termed visually illiterate, are not considered disabled. The problem is merely blamed on lack of 'creative talent'. The fact remains that creative thinking, and a level of visual literacy have nothing to do with 'talent' but with a level of qualitative intelligence that needs to be developed with as much fervour as any other so-called 'intelligence'. That this problem is compounded by social circumstances, is indisputable. The legitimacy of the creative statement is dependant on the accessibility of the work of art to a broad public. Herein lies an insurmountable stumbling block. Our society is largely reared and fed on the standard educational diet of the three 'R's', and this diet almost totally neglects visual and sensorial development. No attempt is made to train the eye to see other than in the most rudimentary fashion. One is taught only to recognize the value of things and symbols in order to function within a given society. We are taught to think on a utilitarian level, rather than on a spiritual, aesthetic level.

The pragmatics of teaching Art at Unisa

Having attempted a brief overview of the role of the artist in contemporary society and some of the dilemmas which confront the art lecturer, how can art education intervene in the process of heightening and developing visual literacy and promoting qualitative aesthetic intelligence?

Art educationalists are more or less in agreement that to teach creative disciplines implies teaching different ways of 'seeing'. The ability to create an art work is intrinsically interwoven with the ability to 'see' in the way an artist 'sees'. It was argued above that man has a notoriously bad memory for issues which he does not consider to have immediate value. Seeing therefore happens with a utilitarian value in mind. The artist must be taught to see differently. The artist must be taught to set up conditions which generate a mental shift to an altered state of consciousness. This will enable the artist to 'see' creatively.

A natural consequence of this shift is the development of a personalised identity; an identity which can allow the artist or student to function effectively within their own socio-cultural context. At the outset this attitude cannot allow for any pre-conceived expectation in respect of

either the content or subject matter of student work. What can and is expected, however, is the requirement that a student's work should reflect a social awareness which is concomitant with current concepts, approaches and attitudes in contemporary art.

If the above is a broadly based art-educational ideal, how does the distance pedagogic structure of Unisa allow us to realise this aim? At the outset we must address some aspects which characterise art education programs at residential art schools, and note how these issues differ in the Unisa program. Some of these differences also contain distinct advantages for Unisa students over their residential student counterparts.

Students studying at Unisa need to select and evolve individualized work programs based on their personal circumstances. This implies a realistic assessment of the motives students harbour for undergoing tertiary training in the creative arts. The department has recently introduced a questionnaire for completion by prospective students to aid them in determining their objectives and clarifying these motives.

Secondly, students embarking on a practical study program must have access to relatively self-contained work or studio space as the concept of a joint or shared studio space is not available as part of the UNISA program. The advantages of the artist equipping him or herself during his or her period of study is self-evident. What is not so evident is the large measure of resourcefulness this promotes amongst students. An early realization is that technology need not be complex for the creation of art. A further benefit is the increasing number of community-based interactions that flow from the distance teaching concept. Students in our department organize themselves into smaller study and work groups, introducing a concept of student-managed satellite studios with active research. Encouragement and support are offered by our department. These student study groups are geographically based and take place throughout the country.

A third major difference in the Unisa structure is that the department uses the printed word, illustration and visual aids as primary communication with the student. The direct verbal communication and interaction which characterizes residential art schools can only be utilized for structured group workshop sessions. Although the written word is obviously fraught

with interpretation problems and pitfalls- particularly in respect of a creative visual discipline - it introduces students at an early stage to the principle of verbalization of ideas. Tutorial matter also provides a student with study material he or she may consider to be invaluable in later years, material which can be referred to at will. Teaching aids such as slide kits, tapes and video tapes, primarily for demonstration of technical skills, supplement the tutorial material available for students. Teaching of art at Unisa occurs primarily therefore, through the use of tutorial letters introducing assignments for students and providing critical feedback and evaluation on assignments submitted to the department. An assignment constitutes a carefully designed project which is geared towards allowing the student to materialize his or her expressive potential. The manner in which the feedback and critical comment of the lecturers is conveyed to students differs. It can occur during the regular appointment sessions, or during group workshop sessions scheduled throughout the year, or in a more personalized manner via the telephone or cassette tape, or as written comment on work submitted by the student. It remains however obligatory for all students to attend some of the practical sessions scheduled in all the larger centres of the country.

The training of skills, an aspect which any beginner art student assumes, is the central core of any art education, must be considered in a different light. It is the philosophy of this department that important as skills training may be, the generation of ideas and an emphasis on the underlying concepts informing creativity is more important. Our course structure is designed to accommodate both aspects, utilizing the group workshop sessions and complementary visual aids such as video tapes.

A further difference characterising the Unisa Department of Fine Arts if compared to a residential art school - can be found in the nature of the student body. Unlike most other tertiary art institutions, Unisa has no centrally based or homogeneous student body. Students registered in the Department reflect a widely dispersed geographic distribution incorporating a variety of cultures.

Many students also transfer their studies from other institutions or have had previous art training. A question which is often posed is whether any single Department can accommodate such a widely divergent student body all holding differing aspirations. It is our belief, however, that fine

arts has a singular advantage over other disciplines taught at Unisa. The emphasis in our teaching program is on the use of the formal principles and elements which constitute creative expression. These are universal principles which transcend social and cultural barriers. The visual language is a universal language. Perspectives of students are richly divergent and it remains a primary aim of the department to engender and promote each student's individualised creative response to his or her world. It has, therefore, never been possible to identify any particular Unisa 'style' in terms of the work delivered by its students. Because the Unisa art student is not subjected to an ongoing centralised studio situation, peer group influences on his or her work is minimized. The student is forced to become self-reliant in terms of creative progress, and to develop self-criticalabilities as a direct consequence of the distance teaching environment.

Finally, the unique pedagogic structures employed in the undergraduate courses of the department, which concentrate on the development of the self-critical abilities of the students, serve as an ideal training ground for post-graduate study. Training in independent research is also a prerequisite for functioning effectively as a practising artist after completion of the course. In this context, a rewardingly large number of graduate Unisa fine art students remain actively involved in art and continue to exhibit regularly.

The concepts we have introduced above will form the background to our slide presentation. This presentation illustrates the mechanics of the materialization of an art idea from the initial structuring of a project by the lecturers to its interpretation and realization by the student.

DISTANCE EDUCATION FOR INDUSTRIAL, PROFESSIONAL AND PRACTICAL
TRAININGJacob van der Westhuizen
Institute for Criminology

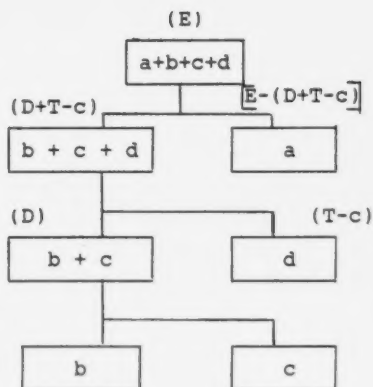
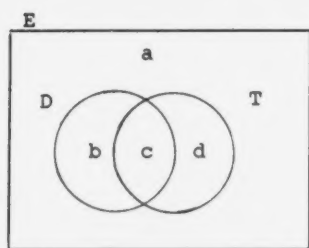
1.0 INTRODUCTION

In my paper I am going to discuss the functionalist perspective on distance education, stressing its importance in socialising individuals for a variety of socio-economic roles. Since the beginning of the eighties profound changes have been taking place in distance education at Unisa. New approaches, new concepts, new procedures and new courses are emerging on a practical level. In general the role of our institution has shifted from that of teaching a small, selected percentage of candidates for advanced education and training, to that of reaching every person who is able and willing to learn. Currently there is a need to improve the educational opportunities of disadvantaged persons. Moreover, the introduction of practical courses has been strongly stimulated by the emergence of new technologies and a world-wide economic depression. The rationale for the current movement also lies in the fact that knowledge is replacing opinion, and evidence is supplanting speculation. Of late more time and energy are devoted to practical courses at the Institute for Criminology. For example, two certificate courses are offered: one in security management and one in civil defence management.

2.0 EDUCATION AND TRAINING SETS

Distance education for industrial, professional and practical training is a subset of distance education which in turn is a subset of the master set, education. (See figure 1).

20
15



Legend

E = Education

D = Distance education

T = Training

a,b,c,d = number of elements

Figure 1: Education and training sets

Moore (1973;664) defines distance education as "the family (set) of instructional methods in which the teaching behaviors are executed apart from the learning behaviors".

3.0 DEFINING THE KEY SUBSET (D ∩ T)

Distance education for industrial, professional and practical training at Unisa can be defined as the process by which a student can be brought to a desired level or standard of managerial efficiency and individual development. This process comprises different stages of practical instruction, viz. orientation, learning, simulation, testing and appraisal. The amount of education (and training) accrued by the student is mainly dependent on (a) his capacity, (b) resources to pursue it, and (c) his desire to do so (see figure 2).

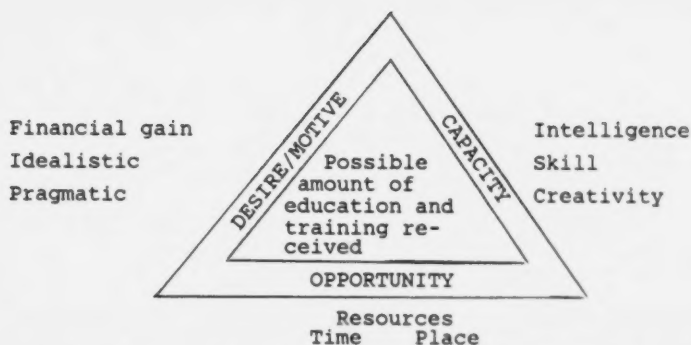


Figure 2: Factors determining the possible amount of education and training received.

4.0 OPPORTUNITY MAKES THE MAN

The opportunity to receive any amount of education and training depends on the student's (i) life chances/background, (ii) lifestyle and (iii) exposure to strain and stress, e.g. isolation, deprivation, social conflict, mobility, marginality (see figure 3).

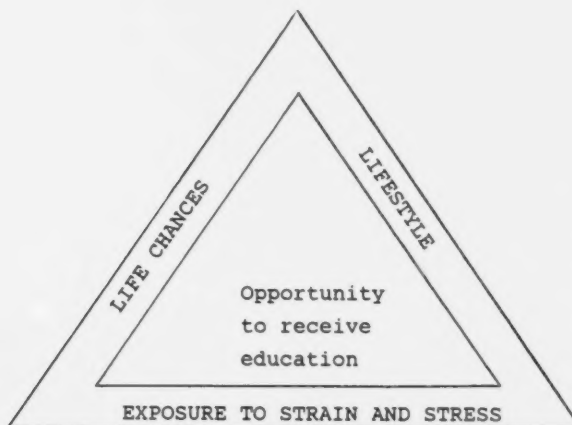


Figure 3: Factors determining opportunity to receive education

5.0 STIMULATING THE STUDENT'S DESIRE TO LEARN

A rational approach is to include in a professional curriculum things which have intrinsic value and which are worth studying for their own sake. The student has many different needs to satisfy, ranging from safety and security needs to development of his personality, creativity and rationality with a view to living a more balanced and beneficial life. We follow Dewey (Schofield, 1972:215) who stresses the importance of experience, both in education and morality. He described education as "the constant restructuring of experience" and verification as the test of truth.

The student's desire for education and its concomitant benefits may be set out as in figure 4.



Figure 4: Mapping desire for education

6.0 CAPACITY FOR EDUCATION AND TRAINING

It is assumed that the student commands some degree of learning skill, possesses a fair share of intelligence and problem-solving ability, and displays a moderate amount of creativity. His overall capacity for education and training

will depend upon his ability to apply these orientations conjointly, as depicted in figure 5.

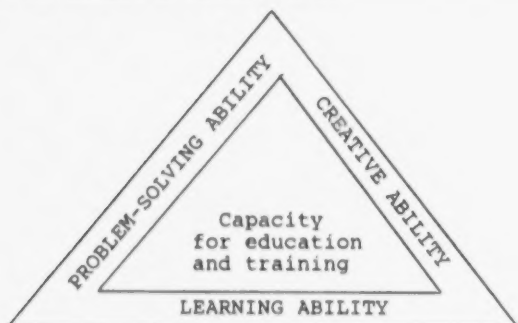


Figure 5: Basic determinants of the human capacity for education and training

7.0 THE TRIANGLE OF ACHIEVEMENT

By compiling the different requirements that go into the education and training equation, a triangle of achievement can be portrayed as in figure 6.

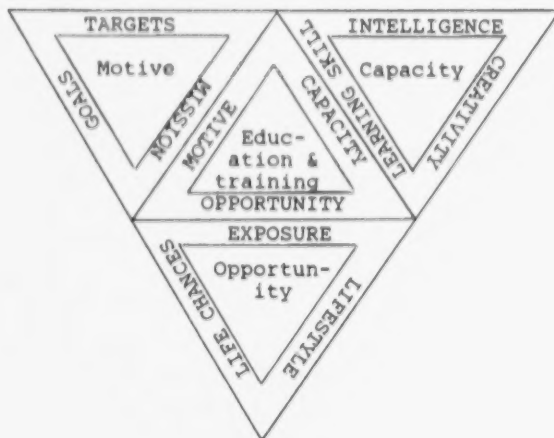


Figure 6: The triangle of achievement

8.0 MEANS-ENDS CONFLICT

Professional and practical training can never be regarded as a process that will automatically continue under its own momentum. Quite a number of "hard facts" and current trends should be taken into account and accommodated for any successful presentation of the program. There is a distinct need in each student to be unique and to develop his personality. Yet, nobody wants to be alienated from the group.

The need for social relations may generate conflict, for example, where means and ends are incompatible. A notable feature of our present-day first-and-third world society is a dangerous increase of tension between sub-groups. However Unisa has not experienced any harmful effects or drawbacks in this regard. The main reason for this is that distance education students are mature adults who set high standards, drive themselves very hard to attain worthwhile goals, and know in advance what outcomes to expect.

9.0 OUTCOMES

The outcomes of education and training can be defined in terms of planned and unplanned/side effects as in figure 7.

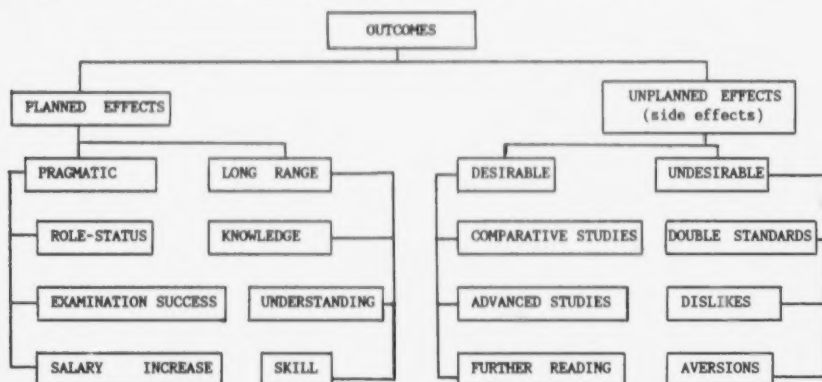


Figure 7: Outcomes of education and training

The outcomes of education and training are non-negotiable to a large extent, but the means to attain pre-set goals are many and varied.

10.0 SOME MEANS TO GOAL ATTAINMENT

At least three distinct means to goal attainment can be described (see figure 8).

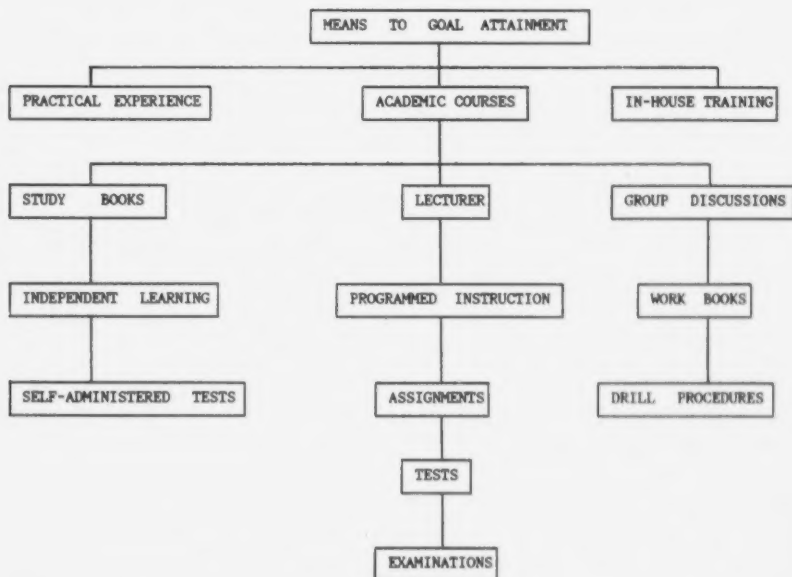


Figure 8: Means to goal attainment

An analysis of goal-attainment mechanisms calls for some insight into the degree of specificity desired and the type of criteria employed to measure success/failure.

11.0 DEGREE OF SPECIFICITY IN GOAL ACHIEVEMENT

In distance education and training, desired changes in students

take place primarily because of the interaction of the student with specific learning material under carefully controlled conditions. For example, a few specific goals are outlined below: Ability to

- * make correct decisions in hazardous situations.
- * apply scientific findings to actual problems.
- * solve linear equations.
- * detect significant changes in crime frequencies.

LEARNING BY ANALOGY

However, the view is NOT advanced that each and every element must be included in the instruction. Rather, we believe that students can generalise from a small number of appropriate and carefully-selected learning experiences.

12.0 CRITERIA FOR SUCCESS

Appraisal of acquired knowledge, insight, and skills takes the form of short questions and answers (multiple-choice type). Test-item and examination-item banks are developed to serve as criteria for success, and each item is screened for validity, reliability, utility and admissibility.

COURSE CONTENT AND LEARNING PROCESSES INVOLVED

The basic problem in developing a set of appropriate specifications is to make the desired outcomes of learning reliable, valid, and applicable to practical work situations, socio-economic environments and cultural settings. The ideal would be to have at our disposal a theory of learning and training, and some sort of framework within which the various objectives of training may be ordered hierarchically.

13.0 THEORY OF LEARNING AND TRAINING

It is not an easy task to order the possible objectives of training and to determine the objectives which should be given highest priority. Perhaps this issue can be resolved if the various levels of goal attainment are specified in terms of scientific norms. At least four levels are defined here, as portrayed in figure 9.

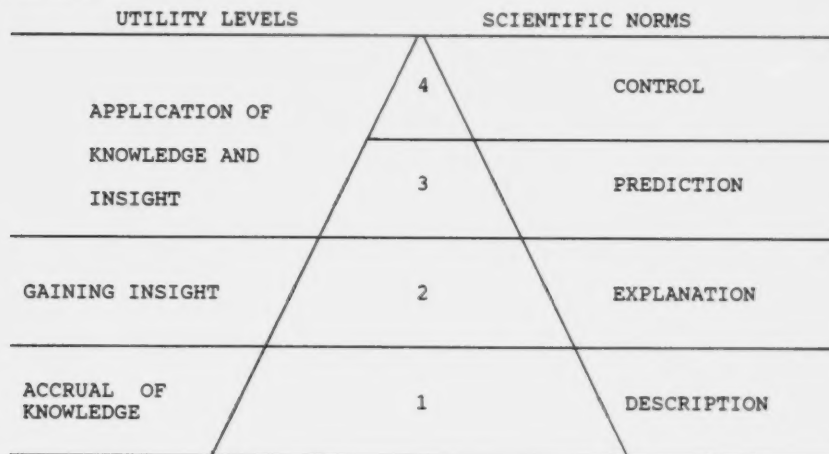


Figure 9: Utility levels in terms of scientific norms

14.0 CONCLUDING REMARKS

In conclusion, the general factors determining the feasibility of practical courses in distance education are listed. These are

- * magnitude : whether the course adheres to a norm i.r.o. its scope/whether a valid delimitation of subject was made.
- * completeness : whether the course's procedures, its conception, and its supporting materials were considered.

- * complexity : whether the course is straightforward, unembellished, simple.
- * convenience : whether studybooks, manuals, study guides are available.
- * flexibility : whether the training is cumulative/prescriptive/descriptive.
- * distinctiveness : whether the course is up to standard/below standard/above standard.
- * replicability : whether it is possible to duplicate the course elsewhere.
- * interaction : whether the course meshes and interacts with other courses/programs.
- * readiness : whether the knowledge and insight gleaned lend themselves to instant and/or meaningful application.
- * trial-and-error capacity : whether the course has any return potential/experimental value.
- * cost : whether the project is cost effective.

15.0 LITERATURE

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T.J. Van Heerden
Criminology, Police Science and Penology

It is not the purpose of this paper to venture on a detailed exposition of the evolution of Criminology as such, actual teaching strategies and programmes, or the theories underlying vocational education. It would be sufficient to note that by exploring the actual purpose of Criminology (i.e. to provide detailed knowledge of the crime phenomenon in order to enhance society's control of behaviour which poses a threat to the ideal of harmonious co-existence) and the related theory growth, three independent disciplines emerged and was recognised as such in 1976.

- Criminology, which is mainly concerned with the symptomatology and etiology of crime, i.e. describing and explaining crime in both its predisposing and precipitating facets.
- Penology which focuses on the punishment, incarceration and treatment/rehabilitation of the offender.
- Police Science where the interest falls on the control of the crime problem within the broader concept of maintaining social order. Thus, by implication, it is concerned with a function entrusted to a specific occupation. It is in this field where attempts are being made to provide vocational education for various policing agencies in order to improve their excellence.

This development can be directly linked to the historical fact that academic endeavours do not exist in a vacuum, but its theoretical and operational (research) activities always have, to some extent, relevance to society from which a specific field of interest emanates. The reluctance of the traditionalist or conscientious and devoted academic to accept that his endeavours could also have relevance to specific occupations, could possibly be related to a fear that the implied nature of such activities would amount to academic degradation.

The application of science is not a science in itself, but merely the utilisation of scientific information in practical circumstances. An applied science, in contrast, takes conclusions that have been reached in other sciences, processes them in a scientific context which is distinctively its own, and makes the resulting scientifically-based knowledge available to the professional practitioner. Since police science is mainly interested in the fulfilling of a specific social function, its applied character is self-evident. It is precisely because of this character that its social relevance and the role-linked character is emphasised more strongly than are its theoretical aspects. But this does not mean that police science is not theoretically and operationally relevant as well. Its theoretical relevance resides in a distinctive, systematised system of knowledge, principles and concepts of a special kind - a system which revolves round the policing of the social order and internal (organisational) and external (role environment) influences which may affect its efficiency.

The policing of the social order is a complex affair involving many important relational problems and cut on almost all facets of human existence. This implies that practitioners have recourse to a number of different disciplines in which certain aspects of their work are being studied in isolation. Keeping this in mind, the dependence of police science on the contribution of other sciences becomes obvious, but it does not initiate the existence of a separate area of specialisation. Most of the existing disciplines have followed similar lines of development, i.e. a splitting away or emancipation from a broader, more comprehensive field of investigation, followed by the development of refined and detailed investigations on idiographic (or unique) lines, and directed towards justifying attention to, and disciplined interest in the newly-demarcated special field. After this there is a return to the nomothetic or established, more comprehensive universon which includes a great diversity of scientific specialities. Thus separate disciplines develop in a sympodial rather than a unilinear manner. Police Science is no exception. Its special field of study is supplemented by a number of disciplines. However, the relevant information and conclusions are applied and processed selectively in its own distinctive area.

This process of development was one of raising questions and responding to them. It opened the door for penetrating analyses of the relationship between policemen, their work, clients and the civilizing process of which they are an extremely important part. At the same time it afforded an opportunity of expanding the realm of human possibility to organisations which have hitherto been totally precluded from tertiary vocational education and which have been plagued and burdened by the stereotype of inferiority - inferiority in function and that it could be performed by men of inferior qualities. This persisting stereotype, to some extent, and conceptual dualisms had to be taken into account, often as barriers, in our efforts.

CONCEPTUAL DUALISMS

Conceptual dualisms are common ways to differentiate conceptually or to think differently about vocational education. Often these dualisms exist as if they were dichotomies, that is categorical arrangements which are mutually exclusive and contradictory. Sometimes they appear as if they were habitual separations prompted by traditions of custom. The purpose of mentioning them is to illuminate the background, current status and future of vocational education for policemen.

Education versus training

This dualism is highly complex and often controversial. These terms are seldom employed as exact synonyms and yet they are often used to describe identical education and/or training activities. At the same time they cannot exist as separate entities. Both are indispensable in the process of attaining vocational excellence. Constant collaboration and interaction between the academic and other trainers are of the utmost importance.

Traditionally, education has been more closely identified with intellectual activities occurring in institutions of higher learning. Such education seeks to strengthen and refine the learner's competence in effective rational analysis and synthesis; in effective rational comparison and contrast, generalizing and particularising, induction and deduction; in abstracting theory from particulars; and

in applying theory to particulars; in distinguishing sound from fallacious reasoning; in seeking to answer the why questions rather than, exclusively, through demonstration and practice, the how to do it questions. In contrast, training relates to functional oriented activities which is often no more than elementary vocational training in particularised and often mindless skills. This form of training, coupled with experience, is sometimes considered by the traditionalist policeman as sufficient to get the job done. This could ensure functional proficiency, but not necessarily vocational excellence. I believe that those who fear the academic degradation by affording vocational education, also fall in the way of seeing vocational education and training as synonymous. Rightly, they condemn functionally oriented training, but go on to assume that this is what vocational education is all about and continue to condemn the very concept of vocational-oriented education.

Occupational preparation versus professional preparation

Many professions existed in earlier periods of history as occupations. Differences exist in the length of the period of instruction and often there are differences in the basis of licensing or certifying the qualifications to function in certain occupations or professions.

It is often contended, without discarding the other qualities of a profession, that the primary distinction between a profession and an occupation lies in superior knowledge and expertise. This would then be decisive to ascertain the degree of professionalisation and the position on the occupation-profession continuum. When it is taken into account that academisation is the avenue of professionalisation, then vocational education as such is of prime importance. The expertise of a profession flows from and is supported by a fund of knowledge that has been organised into an internally consistent system of theory. Both theory and practical field must be the exclusive domain of the occupation/profession.

The theory gives rise to an activity that is usually not found in functional training-oriented occupations, namely the construction of theories on the basis of systematic research. By means of research, valid theories are formulated that can

be applied in the practical situation for more effective realisation of the primary objective of the profession. Research cultivates and reinforces rationalism. A rationalistic orientation is the antithesis of traditionalism. It paves the way for the critical evaluation of theory and practical procedures, and creates an environment in which intellectual activity is stimulated and scope is allowed for changes aimed at greater productivity.

However, some doubt as to whether policing can build up a unique, specialised system of knowledge on the grounds of its repressive nature by enforcing laws. It is argued that the extensive knowledge of the law - which is essential for carrying out their task - does not constitute grounds for qualifying as a profession. The reason being that such knowledge is neither specialised nor unique to the police. Instead, it is the domain of the legal profession. The fact that the enforcement of laws was gradually taken over by the police, illustrates the view that particular sections of professional knowledge are so routine that they can be mastered and applied by secondary occupations for which training/education need not be so intensive. This "dirty work" is less of a challenge, uninteresting, of a preparatory nature and requires little intellectual effort.

This called for a redefinition of the policeman's role in society. As the main actors in the executive sub-system of criminal justice, it is their sworn responsibility to put the underlying philosophy of law, which involves the protection and maintenance of relations in society, into practice. In our age, police authority must be viewed as the personification of order in society and as a guarantee that each individual's fundamental rights will be protected, respectfully and impartially - regardless of social class or population group - within the framework of what may be regarded as orderliness at present or in the future. This approach to policing involves a variety of theories and a system of abstract knowledge in which the application of the law is regarded as a supplementary and in some respects, a secondary facet.

Theory and practice

Theory and practice (sometimes referred to as utility or putting theory into prac-

tice) are often viewed as distinctive concepts with no interrelation. The one belonging to a specific institution or intellectual activity and the other to another type of activity. To some theorists, unfortunately, it amounts to an encomium, a differentiation of the merits of knowing and the merits of doing or a clear separation of theory and utility. To the functionally oriented practitioner theory belongs to the "ivory tower of thinking" and is too abstract to have any utility value. Both these extreme views reject the fact that the one cannot exist without the other. Both ignore the basic premise that a theory is the consequence of an observed or expected consistency in the real world which becomes a construct for explaining the consistency. Specific conditions in the social reality actually initiate theory. The practitioner who ignores the constructs which serve as explanation for specific consistencies, is doomed to failure. So will be any academic endeavour to educate for vocational excellence, if the interrelation between theory and practice is negated.

THE ANATOMY OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

As an educational term, vocational education is in common use to describe how individuals and groups become the recipients of instruction leading to work roles in an occupation, trade or profession. Such a definition is insufficient and should also include its central function, namely to expand the realm of practical human possibility. In reality it amounts to a system of abstract statements describing the general content of an occupation's particular sphere of interest and a multitude of internal and external factors which may influence the effective realisation of occupational goals, which could serve as a basis for rationalising what is done in practice.

Having identified the central purpose of vocational education and the realm of the specific function, it should be devious that to effectively attain the set goals, specific strategies and procedures become inevitable. The most important of these are planning, syllabi content, educational procedures and evaluation. For the purpose of this paper the focus will fall on planning and evaluation to illustrate how we approach the challenge to offer vocational education for the police - not education for the sake of education and its extrinsic value for the indivi-

dual policeman or organisation, but education which would have a positive impact on the level of excellence by which the role is fulfilled.

Planning

Planning is of crucial importance. It is basically a process of problem-identification and problem-solving by considering all possible alternatives. The following are some of the problem-areas.

(a) Complexity of function

As the executive arm in the criminal justice system, the task of the police is to execute and enforce laws. Laws which demarcate the occupational authority and power of the police. Therefore, laws are the 'tools of the trade'. However, as indicated above, laws in itself does not constitute their professional or occupational domain, but their task falls within the category of the 'dirty work' of the legal profession. Nevertheless, extensive knowledge of the many laws is a prerequisite and ample provision must be made in any curriculum aimed at vocational education for the police.

The application of these laws takes place in society and is intrinsically a facet of society's ideal to create and maintain an orderly society by controlling behaviour. The central theme of all activities directed to realise this aim, is the maintenance of sound relations. This is in fact also the underlying philosophy of the 'tools of the trade'. It suggests something more than a mechanical performance of duties as is suggested by the 'dirty-work label'. As a matter of fact, crime which flows from disobedience to the laws, is not the only concern of the police. They are the only agents in society to maintain order formally. To maintain order it is self-evident that it must be protected and enhanced in the first place and, as a secondary facet, to restore order by enforcing the laws. This implies that the 'tools of the trade' should be applied in a specific fashion in the actual function of the occupation - the domain of police science.

The total educational package should, therefore, include all these relevant subjects.

This is indeed the position. The Curriculum of the BA (Police Science), established in 1972, makes provision for a variety of law subjects, police science, as a major, and other arts subjects.

(b) The occupational environment

Role-performance takes place in a complex environment with many publics. Its general nature and the degree of excellence is determined, amongst others, by the organisational conditioning or socialising processes. Although role-linked disciplines have a specific set of theories which must be recognised, respected and offered as the core in all syllabi, it is equally important for the educationalist to have a proper understanding of problem-areas in the internal and external occupational environment. This would enable him, not only to assess the present state of excellence of the occupation, but also where the emphasis in preparing basic study material should fall. This is only possible by vast experience of lecturers themselves, constant contact and collaboration with organisations, policy-makers and line functionaries, and research.

All our present lecturers are ex-policemen, we have constant contacts with the organisation and have undertaken research. The first, concerning the role and image of the South African Police, was undertaken in 1970 (two years before the inception of the BA (Police Science) and a similar project with reference to traffic policing was undertaken in 1983.

(c) Diversity of function

It is imperative that the diversity of the function should be taken into account in order to cater for all the requirements implied by its very nature. This is clearly reflected by the horizontal and vertical division of labour in the organisation. Therefore, the contents of the study material must be carefully selected and grouped in accordance to its relevancy, and, preferably, be presented in separate papers.

(d) Vocational differentiation

By definition, policing includes all activities aimed at controlling behaviour which threatens the order - be it the regulation of behaviour, the prevention of disruptions or repression of unaccepted behaviour. These functions are performed by several policing bodies, e.g. the South African Police, Traffic Police and security officers in industry and commerce. In order to meet with the basic meaning of police science and to serve the specific function in society, it becomes essential that the syllabi should cater for all these agencies. Our efforts have indeed been so constructed in an effort to serve all these agencies.

Evaluation

Assessment of efforts is imperative. Without some kind of feedback there can be no refinement or indication that the aims of the educationalist have been realised. This include curriculum, syllabi, and contents of study material. In this regard performances of students in the examination is no yardstick. The crux of the question is whether the education indeed enhances the vocation's excellence.

Apart from close collaboration with the occupations concerned and the opportunity afforded them to scrutinise the curriculum, syllabi and contents of study material, a research project was undertaken in 1979 to explore the practical implications academisation has for the police. The questionnaire made provision for a critical analysis of the curriculum and the syllabi content, dissected into its various components. This exercise proved extremely valuable in the process of revising and supplementing basic study material.

Do we succeed in our efforts? The positive evaluation and the view of respondents that the BA (Police Science) and the police science as such were of more value to them than any other degree or subject, indicated that efforts at this level can make a positive contribution to vocational excellence. However, vocational excellence is a fluctuating condition. What may be considered now as excellent may be interpreted as insufficiency in future. This will be determined by the requirements set by society. The educationalist will have to take heed of these.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN VOCATIONAL COURSES SUCH AS SOCIAL WORK WITH
SPECIAL REFERENCE TO LABORATORY WORK

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1. INTRODUCTION

The professional development of students in vocational courses such as social work is of cardinal concern to educators and providers of human services. In the case of social work, educators have a mandate to produce professionals who are prepared to deliver quality, ethical and responsible service to clients. As social work education has advanced considerably through revisions and new adaptations in its academic curriculum, one can today say that to qualify as a sound social work practitioner a student has to acquire a proper theoretical knowledge and practical skills as well as a fair degree of self-awareness, objectivity and maturity.

One accepts, however, that professional standards are reflected by the training provided in any profession. Training in social work traditionally consists of both theory and practice, these being complementary aspects of the same goal. They are in fact indissolubly linked since together they combine in order to produce professional practitioners who possess all the qualities necessary to fulfil their professional functions effectively.

In order to achieve a properly balanced combination of theoretical and practical training in social work, the Social Work Department at Unisa proceeds from the premise that these components should be systematically integrated, to which end laboratory work serves as a reinforcement and supplementation. Laboratory work therefore serves as a teaching strategy primarily based on experience gained from social encounters with students. The purpose of these encounters is to influence students' attitudes and develop their interactional skills in human relations. It is particularly applicable to the development of basic skills such as

elementary communication behaviour or group process skills, but could be used to demonstrate and practise more advanced skills as well. As a controlled setting it allows for the sequential introduction of skills, building up to increasing complexity with provision for monitoring, feedback and adjustment involving little risk for students. That is, students can test and practise specific behaviours and techniques with relatively low cost for errors.

Laboratory work was introduced in 1978 in all undergraduate and postgraduate social work courses at Unisa. Today, nine years later, we can confidently claim categorically that this innovation has dramatically improved and advanced the professionalism of social work students.

The purpose of this paper is to describe the nature and essence of laboratory work within social work training, with special reference to its role -- in conjunction with theoretical and practical work -- in shaping the student professionally.

2. CONCEPTUALISATION OF LABORATORY WORK

Due to its universal and generic nature there is no simple and direct way to comprehensively define the term "laboratory work (or approach)". It is also, as Egan (1973: 7) pointed out, easier to experience laboratory work than to describe it. Schein and Bennis (1965 10) also had difficulty defining the concept. They attribute it to the following:

(1) Laboratories vary tremendously in goals, training design, delegate population, length, and setting, making it difficult to describe this experience in general; (2) laboratories attempt to provide a total and integrated learning experience for the participants, making it difficult to communicate in written words the interdependence of the many separate aspects of the laboratory training design; (3) laboratories intend to provide a learning experience which is, in part, emotional, and to provide the opportunity for the participants to explore the interdependence of emotional and intellectual learning. It is difficult without observing the process [at] first-hand to describe and understand the nature of this emotional learning and its meaning to the learner.

In addition to the above-mentioned problems in clearly defining laboratory work, Papell (1972:44) mentions at least seven terms used to express the concept of laboratory work, namely T-group, laboratory method, human relations training, sensitivity training, personal growth experiences, basic encounter and intensive group experience. Although no one term quite subsumes all the others in common usage, they are all used commonly. Although we do not have the time or space to try and distinguish between the different terms and what each of them stands for, we do know that the choice of a term by various authors in the literature seems to indicate something, with varying degrees of definitiveness, about a given approach or emphasis. As the curriculum that we offer at Unisa has developed along the lines of the laboratory approach we would like to continue elaborating on what it means for us in training.

Definition

Laboratory work is a learning and teaching medium that offers participants the opportunity to interact under controlled conditions, through certain activities and group experiences, and in this way to obtain the necessary feedback from one another. This learning experience results in professional development, in greater awareness of people and their behavioural expressions, and also in the development and expansion of personal skills.

As defined above, laboratory work requires special learning conditions, which are intensive, concrete and specifically formulated. This form of teaching is based on experience, and participants learn mainly within the class situation, through some kind of activity, exercise or practice and not through formal lectures or books. Because students usually sit in a circle, they meet face to face in small groups to interact and obtain feedback in terms of a specific programme and in ways that develop a variety of human relational skills. Because each student who is a member of such a group reflects upon his own behaviour and receives feedback from other members, he gets the opportunity to develop a "diagnostic" sense. Through his interaction with other people he is enabled to experiment with his ideas, feelings and communicative action and to intensify all these with a view to his professional development.

3. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE LABORATORY PROGRAMME (Jacobs 1980: 66)

A laboratory programme has the following characteristics:

3.1 *Distinct objectives*

The most fundamental characteristic of any meaningful laboratory programme is that it should have clearly formulated objectives, as well as the means to pursue these objectives and ultimately to realise them.

The word "objective" essentially implies the pursuit of an ideal. An objective in the laboratory situation can be defined as a common aim which the trainer (lecturer) and the participants (students) in the programme try to realise through combined action. In the laboratory situation there are usually various objectives, some of which are immediate and others long-term.

3.2 *Experience in here and now*

The principal form of learning in a laboratory group takes place through the participants' actual experience of their own behaviour and their interaction with other group members. Since the chief input in a laboratory group is the members' own behaviour (according to Egan 1973: 8), the present -- in other words, the here and now -- constitutes the main source of material used in laboratory training. Apart from the theoretical background to the laboratory programme and the directed exercises and activities, what is discussed originates exclusively within the group itself. Much of what is learned in the laboratory group therefore results directly from the group's observation of and active participation in events within the group. The value of this type of learning is expressed as follows by Marrow (1975: 9). "This gives the experience richness, variety, and a level of intimacy rarely found in the traditional classroom." The facts which help the student most to learn from himself and from others are those revealed by group interaction; hence the strong emphasis on behavioural reactions and interactions in specific group situations.

3.3 *The social self*

What, then, is the difference between a laboratory programme and growth-oriented social groupwork? Both deal with interaction between the members of a specific group; both are in a sense concerned with changes in members' behaviour, and both to a certain extent derive the object of their study from the here and now reality.

The most positive changes in people usually result in some way from personal growth or therapeutic activity, but nonetheless there are important differences between a laboratory group and growth-oriented social groupwork. Gifford (1968: 81) expresses it succinctly: "The laboratory emphasis has been on training rather than help with direct personal problem-solving." Frank, as quoted by Davies (1973: 68) puts it even more pertinently: " -- the most important distinction is that the therapeutic group contains sick people whereas the laboratory is composed of healthy members and that the difference in membership determines the differing goals." Clearly, then, in growth-oriented social groupwork the participants are clients -- in other words, people with problems or potential problems in respect of their social functioning. They are worried about or suffer from their situation and are therefore in need of recovery or treatment. In the laboratory group, on the other hand, the members are students in a training context, and in most cases they are psychically healthy. They wish to be trained, to become more skilled and more sensitive, in order to become more proficient at certain activities. Outward and interpersonal behaviour in particular is made explicit in the laboratory group, although intrapersonal behaviour, such as students' emotionality, is indirectly taken into account (Miles 1971: 37).

3.4 *Experimental atmosphere*

There should be sufficient opportunity for participants in a laboratory programme to experience different kinds of behaviour and to experiment with and practise these so that they can use and actualise such behaviour outside the group (Egan 1976: 5).

Harrison and Cooper (1976: 276) have this to say about the value of experimentation: " -- unless there are opportunities to try out new patterns of thought and behaviour they never become part of the individual. Without experimental efforts relevant change is difficult to make". The laboratory, with its characteristic cultural freedom under strictly controlled conditions, offers unique opportunities for experimentation and practice in newly accepted ideas, attitudes, techniques and feelings.

3.5 Feedback

Harrison and Cooper (1976: 266-267) write as follows about the content of feedback:

-- individuals do not learn from random experience. They learn by bringing about essential patterns of thought and behaviour in a situation where they can receive clear and accurate information about the relevancy and effectiveness of their work. The feedback may come from other participants, the teacher, or feedback elements built into the design of the learning event using observations, results and data.

Individual participants in the laboratory situation must always be given the opportunity to react to each other's behaviour. This sharing in the reactions to each other's behaviour and obtaining feedback from one another are vital elements of learning which are unique to laboratory work. To best serve its purpose in the learning process, the feedback must firstly be as correct and undistorted as possible; secondly, it must come from a reliable and non-threatening source; thirdly, it must be aimed as directly as possible at the behaviour to which it is supposed to be a reaction; and fourthly, it must be provided as promptly as possible and always be based on reliable data. (Compare Egan 1973: 11.)

3.6 Support

The laboratory situation offers students an opportunity to get rid of prejudices and preconceived ideas and especially of the habit of defending certain behaviour. If these are not done away with, they may

very well result in a rigid personality and a distorted experience of reality.

Each of these elements is usually fraught with a certain degree of emotion, and for this reason support is necessary during the emancipation process. The best way to generate a feeling of security in the group is for the trainer to create an atmosphere of mutual respect, trust and support, which the participants maintain in their interaction with one another. (Compare Egan 1973: 12.)

3.7 A non-condemnatory relationship

Because the laboratory situation offers the participant an atmosphere of interpersonal freedom, its success depends on the willingness of all participants to cooperate fully with the trainer and the programme content.

According to Egan (1973: 13) participants (students) initially tend to regard laboratory work with prejudice and anxiety because of their uncertainty about the effect it will have on them (on "the self"). However, according to him, these feelings should disappear quite soon as the trainer succeeds in winning the participants' confidence in himself as a trainer -- that is, when the programme is no longer experienced as a threat and everyone can start cooperating fully to make it a success.

3.8 Group size

The laboratory group must be small enough to offer each participant sufficient opportunity for full participation yet large enough to ensure adequate intervals between the participants' contributions. The size of the group is important. If it is too small, the constant demand on individual participants would become too much for them; if it is too large, the individual would have too much opportunity to hide behind the crowd. We therefore agree with Davies (1973: 70) in favouring a group consisting of six to twelve members, which is neither too small nor too large.

3.9 Communication and emotion

Communication is the basis of all human interaction and all behaviour in groups, and therefore also of participation in a laboratory programme. The existence and survival of a group is essentially dependent on communication because it is the medium for interaction in a group. Communication between people is a process of sending, receiving and interpreting messages, both on the verbal (i.e. in words) and the nonverbal level (i.e. body language and facial expressions). Communication also provides a bridge between people which allows relationships to be established.

Effective communicative behaviour is always characterised by awareness of the external and internal life-world and an ability to consciously control the effect of this life-world on relations with other people. Because of the importance of effective communication in almost any laboratory situation, it is a focal point in any programme.

3.10 Leadership

In the laboratory situation, which is basically a teaching situation, the lecturer is known as a trainer or facilitator and acts as a resource person rather than an authority figure. Gifford (1968: 79) defines the role of the trainer: " -- to help the group to learn to observe itself in action, to note and face the dilemmas that arise as the group seeks to move forward, and to evaluate and improve its behaviour". The trainer therefore assists the students or participants and enables them to concentrate consistently on the objectives of the laboratory group. He also helps to make the communicative behaviour of participants more effective. Finally, he helps individual participants to evaluate their own growth and progress on the basis of their participation and involvement in the laboratory programme.

4. THE IMPACT OF LABORATORY WORK (Jacobs 1980: 66-69)

The impact of laboratory work appears to be that it helps students to surmount the fears associated with a process-oriented concept of training. As Somers, quoted by Balgopal (1974: 6), rightly remarks:

" -- even highly motivated students experience a sense of loss in giving up old ideas, feelings and patterns, especially when the new learning is not yet incorporated". Somers's remark applies especially to the initial stage of training in social work. Balgopal himself (1974: 6) explains the value of laboratory work for the beginner: " -- (it) holds potential for giving the individual student peer-group support and opportunity to voice his emotional struggles as he begins to cope with new ideas and conflicts associated with his new role".

The teaching method in laboratory work is one of personal experience rather than didactic description; learning takes place by means of experience and actual events in the presence of other people, rather than through lectures and/or books. This gives the experience a richness, versatility and intimacy rarely found in the traditional classroom situation.

The participants in a laboratory programme often experience a certain "permissiveness" enhanced by a supportive atmosphere that elicits spontaneity and creates the susceptibility and involvement characteristic of such a programme.

Laboratory work is characterised by three-way interaction. First, the participants learn and experience the various ways in which they can contribute to laboratory events. Then they discover the need for perceptiveness, understanding and appreciation and particularly the value of active listening during the interaction process. Finally they themselves develop skills for meaningful participation by means of questioning, furnishing information, examples and illustrations, reflection, explanation, summary and evaluation.

The sooner participants in a laboratory programme become aware of and experience the support, acceptance and interest imparted by the trainer, the sooner he will realise that he is not in a competitive situation but is regarded as a person in his own right. Instead of being preoccupied with defence mechanisms and intelligence, he can concentrate on involvement. Participants soon discover that their ideas are experienced as genuine and their expressions as worthwhile. As they start feeling more responsible for assisting others, the trainer -- who at first takes

the lead in facilitating discussions -- begins to withdraw into the background. Thus in a sense he himself becomes a participant and his ideas are considered and discussed at the same level as those of any other participant. As the trainer loses his traditional image as an authority figure, the participants acquire a stronger sense of their own worth which makes for more confident and spontaneous participation.

Because of his active involvement in the laboratory programme, the participant is constantly evaluating his existing values and attitudes in the light of new insights gained from the discussions, objective feedback and support that he experiences in the group. He can immediately try out new insights and abandon obsolete values and attitudes. He can accept new values when he finds them acceptable and integrate them into his own system of values, attitudes and insights. Thus each participant's testing of his experience of reality is integral to the group process in laboratory work.

Each participant experiences a situation in which he can rediscover, reassess and, if necessary, redefine his own system of values and convictions. In this he is helped by the trainer to establish positive values and combat negative ones. In addition his interactional involvement in group events affords similar assistance to fellow participants. The participant can therefore develop a relationship of interdependence and co-responsibility in this kind of environment.

The underlying dynamics of laboratory work comprises both positive and negative elements. The negative ones are apparent in a lack of involvement, defensive remarks and malicious attitudes and statements. Positive elements are those reflected in a receptive and considerate attitude and are expressed in positive insights and planning. Whether the elements are predominantly positive or negative, they usually become more pronounced with each session throughout the course of the experience. A climax usually occurs at the end of each day or each session and more particularly during the final sessions before termination.

Clearly, then, the main impact of laboratory work lies in its direct appeal to each participant, which encourages him to participate actively in the programme, and in the interaction arising from the programme.

Because this demands much from the participants' individuality, it must be borne in mind that laboratory work should never violate individuality and the person's right to that individuality. The participant must be allowed to exercise his right to self-determination and decide for himself how actively he wants to integrate with the laboratory programme. Of course, as in any kind of group work, apparently passive participants will often be more actively involved than ostensibly active ones. Nevertheless, it is the trainer's job to determine the nature and degree of the participants' active participation and to stimulate really passive ones to greater involvement.

5. DIFFERENT TYPES OF LABORATORY WORK

There appears to be three possible classifications for the different types of laboratory work: firstly, according to group composition; secondly, according to the specific focus of the laboratory programme; and thirdly, according to the level of the projected experience. Each of these classifications will now be explained.

5.1 *Group composition*

According to Buchman and Reisel (in Golembiewski & Blumberg 1977:40) some laboratory programmes appear to be open to the general public, including people with no previous experience in this field. Other programmes are intended only for members of a specific profession, such as social workers. Also, some programmes may be limited to people associated with a certain organisation or institution, whereas others are meant for people with previous experience in the particular field.

5.2 *The specific focus of the laboratory programme*

Buchman and Reisel (in Golembiewski & Blumberg 1977:40_41) feel that by classifying laboratory programmes according to a specific focus it can be divided into the following five categories:

- ✕ laboratory work with the emphasis on personal development;
- ✕ laboratory work with the emphasis on group development;
- ✕ professional laboratory work;

- ✕ organisational laboratory work; and
- ✕ advanced or specialised laboratory work.

5.3 *The level of the projected experience*

Back (in Hare 1976:414_415) maintains that laboratory groups differ in accordance with the area of personal life which forms the focus of the programme, or the particular needs of the group that a programme caters for. According to him a flexible classification of the influence of laboratory training on the individual would be the depth or level of the projected experience. It may have a temporary, superficial effect on the individual or it may bring about profound behavioural change. Back feels that a similar distinction can be made with regard to the social situation in which the laboratory programme is offered. This means that laboratory work can be either an activity in its own right -- in other words, an independent programme -- or it may form part of a bigger programme, in which case it can be integrated to supplement other activities.

The value or effectiveness of individual types or variations of laboratory work cannot be conclusively assessed at this stage. Laboratory programmes are seldom designed to the exact specifications of any one type.

6. PLANNING AND COMPILING A LABORATORY PROGRAMME

Although it is accepted that laboratory work is highly individual and each programme is unique, there is no doubt that in order to be effective, it must be very carefully planned. Planning a laboratory programme comprises various steps, of which the following are regarded as the most important.

6.1 *Determining needs*

Laboratory programmes are never haphazard. Before a programme is compiled, a background study is made to establish the needs and problem areas. It is then decided whether laboratory work is the best educational strategy to fulfil these needs. The parties to such a

decision should be guided by the needs identified in the curriculum, deficiencies in students' skills which become apparent during practical work, and needs pointed out by students themselves which are compatible with the principles and objectives of laboratory work.

6.2 Formulation of goals and objectives

The importance of clearly formulated goals and accompanying educational objectives when planning and compiling any laboratory programme cannot be overemphasised. Goals and objectives direct the work towards the ultimate goal and everyone involved with the programme should understand and continually review them. Poorly formulated goals and objectives give rise to frustration and conflict which retard goal achievement.

6.3 Cost analysis

The cost factor should be considered at an early stage in the planning of a laboratory programme. A cost analysis includes such factors as printing and rental of premises and equipment. Teaching aids such as a chalkboard, cassette recorder, overhead projector, film and slide projectors, and video and television equipment should be considered. An additional cost factor is the trainer's (lecturer's) travel and subsistence allowance if the programme is to be presented in more than one centre.

6.4 Technical and administrative aspects

The technical and administrative aspects of the laboratory programme are the responsibility of the trainer (lecturer) and training institution (university). The following are important considerations:

- ✕ Whether attendance should be voluntary or compulsory: when the programme is an integral part of the curriculum, it is recommended that it should be compulsory in order to ensure continuity of the training and essential professional growth of the student.
- ✕ Whether it will be an open or closed programme: an open programme permits participants to withdraw and newcomers to join, while a closed programme does not.

- x The size of the group: according to my personal experience, membership should vary between a minimum of four and a maximum of twelve persons, depending on the programme goals. The ideal number is six to ten people as this assures that everyone will be in a position to participate and unable to avoid participating.
- x Programme content: although to date there is no empirical evidence regarding the ideal length and distribution of programme content, it would seem that practical considerations are usually decisive. Some interesting opinions are expressed in works by Schutz and Allen (1966) and Schein and Bennis (1965). The programmes presented by the Department of Social Work at Unisa usually last from three to five days. Since lecturers present these programmes in the various centres where students are trained (Pretoria, Durban and Cape Town), the cost factor requires that they be confined to the minimum time needed to ensure maximum learning experience. We suspect, however, that better results could be obtained if the programme content were distributed over a longer period, for instance three to six months, with fortnightly meetings. This would allow for self-directed exercises and testing of acquired skills in practical situations in between meetings.

6.5 *Compiling the programme*

Programme compilation should relate to both theoretical subject matter and practical field work at that stage of the training. By the same token the content of the laboratory programme is divided into two parts, the first of which comprises the theoretical background to the various topics, and the second, the appropriate exercises and activities. Theory should be to the point, providing only factual knowledge of subjects, while activities and exercises should be selected in such a way that goals, degree of difficulty, relevance to the subject and expected results correlate with the level of development of the laboratory group, and complement the educational goals.

6.6 *Evaluating the programme*

With regard to evaluation of the laboratory programme, we concur with the view of Miles (1971: 229): "Any teacher who has really tried to find out what difference his teaching is making knows this in his bones:

evaluating any educational activity is a complex, difficult job. Evaluating training is no exception." The "success" of a laboratory programme is an elusive quantity, difficult to define and even more difficult to measure. The effect of participation in such a programme is sometimes only perceptible over a period, and the experience may take even longer to assimilate (Penland & Fine 1974: 117). Evaluation is inherently restricted by the variety of individual experiences and the diversity of dynamic elements in operation.

All the same, evaluation is an essential part of laboratory training and directly affects the programme's progress and eventual goal achievement. For this reason it should be viewed as a continuous process in the programme and should focus on the degree of goal achievement.

Suitable techniques for the evaluation of laboratory programmes include questionnaires, oral evaluations, rating scales and perception and sociometric patterns.

7. ROLE AND VALUE OF LABORATORY WORK IN PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

Integrating laboratory work into curriculum design calls for careful consideration and good timing. We believe that the most timely point to introduce the laboratory is at the onset of professional education -- in other words already in the first year of study. This may require a period of delayed entry into direct experience in practice, but we believe that it would have the advantage of allowing students to enter live experience -- which in our framework is in the second year -- with proficiency and confidence in at least basic communication skills. Beyond this we believe the laboratory should be integrated into the curriculum in such a way that as each new theoretical concept or related technique is introduced in theory, provision should be made for its application in the laboratory. Such special interpersonal skill-learning as family interviewing and handling the problem-solving group process, are already practised to good effect in existing laboratory programmes.

It is very important that the skills and techniques acquired and practised in the laboratory should subsequently be implemented in practical work in a meaningful way. To this end supervisors are fully

acquainted with the contents of laboratory programmes and are requested to integrate and reinforce these techniques and skills in the practical work situation.

Once more the crux of the matter is obviously the systematic integration of theory and practice, in which regard the quality of the cooperation between lecturer and supervisor is of vital importance -- a matter which was referred to at the outset.

8. CONCLUSION

This paper is an attempt to give an overall view of the, to my mind, fascinating qualities of laboratory work, and the endless possibilities it offers for the professional development of students in professionally oriented courses such as social work. Admittedly laboratory work is a relatively new concept in professional training, and some of the opinions expressed in this paper may require further thought and evaluation. There is, however, no doubt in my mind that the concept of laboratory work has come to stay and that it has the inherent strengths and structural qualities by means of which learning about professional functioning can be enriched, professional functioning itself can be extended, and the realisation of the self for professional purposes can be enhanced.

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THE ROLE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION IN POST GRADUATE STUDIES IN EDUCATION IN
THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

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1. INTRODUCTION

Throughout the world teachers form a significant proportion of the student population of tertiary distance teaching institutions. The Republic of South Africa is no exception to this phenomenon. The University of South Africa as the only distance teaching university in the country, enrolls many thousands of teachers in both undergraduate and post graduate courses. Although the main focus of this paper shall be on the contribution of Unisa to post graduate studies in Education, some information about teachers involved in undergraduate studies will add a valuable perspective.

2. CLARIFICATION OF SOME TERMS

In the title of this paper, reference is made to three concepts that need some clarification.

2.1 Distance education

There exists no unanimity amongst practitioners and theorists as to the terms in which the form of teaching where lecturer and student are not physically in each other's presence in a teaching situation, should be described. Since the inception of this form of teaching during the middle of the last century, it was described by terms such as correspondence teaching, homestudy, independent study, teletuition, telematic teaching and lately distance education. In France, the term 'tele-enseignement' which means 'teaching from afar' is generally used and in Germany this way of teaching is called 'Fernunterricht'.

For the most recent literature it seems that the term 'distance education' has gained general acceptance. This is also reflected

in the name of the main association in this field namely International Council for Distance Education (ICDE).

For the purpose of this paper, the definition of distance education of Holmberg is quite acceptable: "The term 'distance education' as used in this survey, covers the various forms of study at all levels which are not under the continuous immediate, supervision of tutors present with their students in lecture rooms or on the same premises, but which, nevertheless, benefit from the planning, guidance and tuition of a tutorial organization. Distance education includes all those teaching methods in which, because of the physical seperateness of learners and teachers, the interactive as well as the pre-active phase of teaching is conducted through print, mechanical or electronic devices. Elements of oral tuition and group work (contiguous teaching or face-to-face teaching), belong here as optional auxiliary components".

2.2 Post graduate studies in education

Post graduate studies in Education refers to study in Education for which one of the admission requirements is a completed first degree. Although the professional Higher Diploma in Education (Post graduate) complies with the requirement, the main emphasis in this paper will be on post graduate academic study and research. The specific courses in this category offered by Unisa are the Bachelor of Education (BEd), the Master of Education (MEd) and the Doctor of Education (DEd).

2.3 Republic of South Africa

Republic of South Africa refers to the country in which the institution at which such studies are undertaken, is situated. The fact that the University of South Africa is located in the Republic of South Africa does not imply that the statistics in this paper only refer to students who are resident in the Republic of South Africa. Unisa has many students from outside the borders of the R.S.A. Because of the composition of the population of the country, information is provided for separate ethnic groups whenever

necessary.

3. THE TEACHING PROFESSION AND ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL STUDY

3.1 Intrinsic motivation for further study

The nature of the teaching profession is such that it can be expected of teachers to be intrinsically motivated to be involved in academic and professional studies throughout their careers. The large number of teachers enrolled for formal studies at the universities and colleges as well as the sacrifices teachers do make to attend conferences and in-service activities at their own expense and in their own time, is clear evidence that this intrinsic motivation does exist in the profession in the R.S.A.

3.2 Emphasis on qualification and recognition of further professional and academic qualifications by the employing instances

The provision of education at all levels, is generally regarded as the responsibility of the state. Members of the teaching profession are thus mostly employed by the state in contrast to most other professions where members practise their profession independently and are in many instances selfemployed. Furthermore: The teaching profession is characterised by the large diversity in the types of education that must be provided as well as by the level of provision that is required. Another feature of the education profession is the hierarchy in the structure of schools and departments and the qualification requirements attached to different post levels. Most other professions have a relatively simple structure and very limited differentiation in requirements for practising the profession at the different levels.

In most professions, other than the teaching profession, the minimum entrance qualifications are sufficient for practising the profession successfully and at all levels. Keeping up to date with developments in the field is important, but further academic or professional qualifications are not really necessary.

In the teaching profession we find differentiated entrance requirements in the sense that teachers enter the profession with different professional and academic qualifications. Because of qualification barriers in the hierarchy of posts, a particular qualification allows the teacher access to certain post levels only. Without gaining further academic or professional qualifications his promotion possibilities are limited.

Apart from the fact that minimum qualification requirements exist for certain post levels, teachers have to compete for promotion. In this competition qualification is an important factor. Furthermore, teachers are placed in categories according to their qualifications and remunerated accordingly.

The structure of the education profession as briefly explained above, serves as an incentive to further study and the improvement of qualifications.

3.3 Measures of encouragement for further study in the profession

The quality of education is directly proportional to the quality of the teacher. It is generally accepted that the academic and professional preparation of teachers are indicative of this quality. Education authorities acknowledge the importance of the level of academic and professional competence achieved by teachers and positively encourage teachers to improve their qualifications. Not only are teachers promoted to higher categories with better salaries but provision is made for study leave and for leave to write examinations. Financial assistance in the form of bursaries is also provided for studying at local institutions, and overseas travel grants are awarded to senior personnel.

Education Departments in the R.S.A. demonstrated their belief in the value of better qualified teachers by providing special colleges of education for further training. In most instances, these colleges offer professional courses by way of distance education. A large number of teachers improve their qualifications by enrolling

at universities. The circumstances of most practising teachers are such that it is impossible for them to follow programmes at residential universities. The opportunities offered by way of distance education by the University of South Africa, are most acceptable to teachers as the enrolment numbers clearly show.

4. ENROLMENT OF TEACHERS AT UNISA

4.1 Undergraduate studies

During the 1986 academic year, 21 637 teachers enrolled as students at the University of South Africa. This number represents 25,7% of the total student enrolment of 84 040. The vast majority of these teachers, namely 17 373, are studying at the undergraduate level. It is an interesting fact that teachers are enrolled for every degree or advanced diploma course offered at Unisa. The majority of teachers are enrolled for the three basic degree courses offered namely

BA (Bachelor of Arts)	12 580	(72,4%)
BSc (Bachelor of Science)	518	(3,0%)
BCom (Bachelor of Commerce)	1 112	(6,4)

The significant number of 979 (5,6%) are enrolled for advanced and specialized teacher's diplomas and 1255 (7%) are registered for courses for non-degree purposes.

From the preference given to the basic courses, the teacher diplomas and studies for non-degree purposes, it seems fair to conclude that teachers study at this level to better their qualifications in order to become more competent teachers in their fields and to advance their career possibilities in the teaching profession. The relatively low enrolment for the other career orientated degrees indicates that a relatively low percentage of teachers are studying with the view to leaving the teaching profession.

The breakdown of the 1986 enrolment numbers in terms of sex and ethnic grouping is given in table 4.1.

TABLE 4.1 TEACHERS INVOLVED IN UNDERGRADUATE DIPLOMA AND DEGREE STUDIES AT UNISA DURING 1986

Group	Male	Female	Total	%
Whites	1813	2888	4701	27,0
Coloureds	967	590	1557	9,0
Blacks	4441	3443	7884	45,4
Asians	1552	1709	3231	18,6
TOTAL	8743	8630	17373	100,0

4.2 Post graduate diplomas in teacher education

The University of South Africa on its own, offers no initial courses in teacher training for the primary school. It is, however, involved with teacher training for the primary school through agreements with local residential Colleges of Education. Unisa offers initial post graduate teacher education courses for secondary school teaching. The statistics for the HED (Post graduate) are given in Tables 4.2.1 and 4.2.2.

TABLE 4.2.1 ENROLMENT FOR HED (POST GRADUATE) AT UNISA FOR 1985 & 1986

YEAR	WHITES			COLOURED			ASIANS			BLACKS			TOTAL		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
1985	227	879	1106	130	55	185	161	110	271	140	90	230	658	1134	1792
1986	217	775	992	108	53	161	151	136	287	182	124	306	658	1088	1746

A significant number of these students are already teaching as the numbers in table 4.2.2 indicate.

TABLE 4.2.2 TEACHERS ENROLLED FOR HED (POST GRADUATE) AT UNISA FOR 1985 AND 1986

YEAR	WHITES			COLOURED			ASIANS			BLACKS			TOTAL		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
1985	132	295	427	110	43	153	98	58	156	110	73	183	450	469	919
1986	122	269	391	93	39	132	77	53	130	144	104	248	436	465	901

Tables 4.2.1 and 4.2.2 show that teachers comprise about 51% of the total enrolment for the HED (Post graduate). The corresponding percentages for the different population groups for 1986, are 39,4 for Whites, 82 for Coloureds, 45,3 for Asians and 81 for Blacks.

5. POST GRADUATE ACADEMIC COURSES IN EDUCATION

5.1 Enrolment

Tables 5.1.1, 5.1.2 and 5.1.3 provide information about enrolment for different courses from 1981 - 1986.

TABLE 5.1.1 BED ENROLMENT : UNISA : 1981 - 1986

GROUP	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	Total
Whites	401	344	321	302	412	485	2265
Coloureds	126	113	74	57	73	87	530
Blacks	210	215	230	231	306	416	1608
Asians	256	266	260	204	263	388	1637
TOTAL	993	938	885	794	1054	1376	6040

TABLE 5.1.2 MED ENROLMENT : UNISA : 1981 - 1986

GROUP	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	Total
Whites	104	105	112	134	116	128	699
Coloureds	4	9	6	8	9	6	42
Blacks	15	15	20	13	17	13	93
Asians	10	13	15	26	37	25	126
TOTAL	133	142	153	181	179	172	960

TABLE 5.1.3 DED ENROLMENT : UNISA : 1981 - 1986

GROUP	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	Total
Whites	62	65	59	69	78	79	412
Coloureds	2	2	1	1	1	0	7
Blacks	3	5	5	3	5	5	26
Asians	2	5	4	5	3	4	23
TOTAL	69	77	69	78	87	88	468

Tables 5.1.4 and 5.1.5 provide a breakdown of student numbers and percentages according to population groups for these degree courses in 1985 and 1986.

TABLE 5.1.4 STUDENTS ENROLLED AT UNISA FOR POST GRADUATE DEGREES IN
EDUCATION IN 1985

COURSE	Whites	%	Coloureds	%	Asians	%	Blacks	%	Total	%
BEd	412	39,1	73	6,9	263	25,0	306	29,0	1054	100,0
MEd	116	64,8	9	5,0	37	20,7	17	9,5	179	100,0
DEd	78	89,6	1	1,2	3	3,5	5	5,7	87	100,0

TABLE 5.1.5 STUDENTS ENROLLED AT UNISA FOR POST GRADUATE DEGREES IN
EDUCATION IN 1986

COURSE	Whites	%	Coloureds	%	Asians	%	Blacks	%	Total	%
BEd	485	35,3	87	6,3	388	28,2	416	30,2	1376	100,0
MEd	128	74,4	6	3,5	25	14,5	13	7,6	172	100,0
DEd	79	89,8	0	0,0	4	4,5	5	5,7	88	100,0

5.2 Degrees awarded

Tables 5.2.1, 5.2.2 and 5.2.3 provide information about degrees awarded in the different courses from 1981 - 1985.

TABLE 5.2.1 : BEd DEGREES AWARDED : UNISA : 1981 - 1985

	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	TOTAL
Whites	102	95	92	91	79	459
Coloureds	24	23	19	16	6	88
Blacks	16	16	27	28	32	119
Asians	59	62	66	75	56	318
TOTAL	201	196	204	210	173	984

TABLE 5.2.2 : MEd DEGREES AWARDED : UNISA : 1981 - 1985

	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	TOTAL
Whites	30	25	23	34	27	139
Coloureds	0	1	0	0	1	2
Blacks	0	2	1	1	4	8
Asians	1	1	3	0	8	13
TOTAL	31	29	27	35	40	162

TABLE 5.2.3 : DEd DEGREES AWARDED : UNISA : 1981 - 1985

	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	TOTAL
Whites	24	21	15	13	23	96
Coloureds	0	1	0	0	1	2
Blacks	1	1	1	0	0	3
Asians	0	0	1	0	0	1
TOTAL	25	23	17	13	24	102

Table 5.2.4 gives a breakdown of student numbers and percentages according to population groups for these degree courses in 1985.

TABLE 5.2.4 POST GRADUATE DEGREES IN EDUCATION AWARDED AT UNISA IN 1985

COURSES	Whites	%	Coloureds	%	Asians	%	Blacks	%	Total	%
BEd	79	45,7	6	3,5	56	32,4	32	18,4	173	100,0
MEd	27	67,5	1	2,5	8	20,0	4	10,0	40	100,0
DEd	23	95,8	1	4,2	0	0,0	0	0,0	24	100,0

5.3 Degrees awarded as a percentage of the BEd enrolment in a particular year

TABLE 5.3.1 MED DEGREES AWARDED AS A PERCENTAGE OF BEd ENROLMENT : UNISA 1981 - 1985

	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	Total 1981 - 1985
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Whites	7,5	7,3	7,2	11,3	6,6	7,8
Coloureds	0,0	0,9	0,0	0,0	1,4	0,5
Blacks	0,0	0,9	0,4	0,4	1,3	0,7
Asians	0,4	0,4	1,2	0,0	3,0	1,0
TOTAL	3,1	3,1	3,1	4,4	3,8	3,5

TABLE 5.3.2 DED DEGREES AWARDED AS A PERCENTAGE OF BED ENROLMENT : UNISA
1981 - 1985

	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	Total 1981 - 1985
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Whites	6,0	6,1	4,7	4,3	5,6	5,4
Coloureds	0,0	0,9	0,0	0,0	1,4	0,5
Blacks	0,5	0,5	0,4	0,0	0,0	0,3
Asians	0,0	0,0	0,4	0,0	0,0	0,01
TOTAL	2,5	2,5	1,9	1,6	2,3	2,2

6. DETAILED ANALYSIS OF MED AND DED STUDENTS AT UNISA

6.1 MEd students

The information on the files of 151 students enrolled for the MEd could be used for this paper. One hundred and fifty one students comprise 87,8% of the total enrolment of 172. The fact that only files with incomplete information were disregarded, makes it possible to regard the 151 as a fair sample of the group. The following tables reflect aspects of the MEd students.

TABLE 6.1.1 LANGUAGE MEDIUM IN WHICH TUITION IS PREFERRED

Language	Number of students	%
Afrikaans	86	57
English	65	43
TOTAL	151	100

TABLE 6.1.2 SECTOR OF EDUCATION IN WHICH EMPLOYED

SECTOR	Number of students	%
Primary	17	11,3
Secondary	57	37,7
Tertiary	56	37,1
Other	21	13,9
TOTAL	151	100,0

TABLE 6.1.3 UNISA DEPARTMENT WHERE ENROLLED

DEPARTMENT	Number of students	%
Didactics	29	19,2
Empirical Education	34	22,5
Fundamental Pedagogics	20	13,3
History of Education	30	19,9
Orthopedagogics	4	2,6
Comparative Education & School Management	34	22,5
TOTAL	151	100,0

TABLE 6.1.4 UNIVERSITY OF PREVIOUS STUDY

UNIVERSITY	First B-degree	%	BEd	%	DTE	%
Unisa	61	40,4	107	77,0	12	100,0
PU for CHE	17	11,3	5	3,6	-	
Pretoria	24	15,9	7	5,0	-	
Stellenbosch	14	9,2	2	1,4	-	
Wits	6	4,0	4	2,9	-	
Durban Westville	9	6,0	4	2,9	-	
Other	20	13,2	10	7,2	-	
TOTAL	151	100,0	139	100,0	12	100,0

MEd study is usually regarded as part time study and full time study for this degree is exceptional also at the residential universities. The distance from a university becomes a relative concept in this situation. From the addresses of students, it becomes clear that by and large 60% of all Unisa MEd students could have studied at a university relatively near to their homes. It must be accepted that they preferred to study through Unisa for unknown reasons.

6.2 DEd students

The information on the files of 80 students enrolled for the DEd could be used for this paper. Eighty students comprise 90,9% of the total enrolment of 88. As in the case with the MEd students, the 80 can be regarded as a fair sample of the group. The following tables reflect aspects of the MEd students.

TABLE 6.2.1 LANGUAGE MEDIUM IN WHICH TUITION IS PREFERRED

Language	Number of students	%
Afrikaans	56	70
English	24	30
TOTAL	80	100

TABLE 6.2.2 SECTOR OF EDUCATION IN WHICH EMPLOYED

Sector	Number of students	%
Primary	4	5,0
Secondary	21	26,3
Tertiary	35	47,7
Other/not known	20	25,0
TOTAL	80	100,0

TABLE 6.2.3 UNISA DEPARTMENT WHERE ENROLLED

Department	Number of students	%
Didactics	18	22,5
Empirical Education	18	22,5
Fundamental Pedagogics	17	21,2
History of Education	7	8,8
Orthopedagogics	2	2,5
Comparative Education & School Management	18	22,5
TOTAL	80	100,0

TABLE 6.2.4 UNIVERSITY OF PREVIOUS STUDY

UNIVERSITY	First B-degree	%	BEd	%	DTE or BEd eq.	%	MEd	%
Unisa	19	23,7	38	52,8	3	37,5	48	60,0
PU for CHE	6	7,5	4	5,6	-	-	1	1,3
Pretoria	23	28,7	11	15,3	1	12,5	6	7,5
R.A.U.	1	1,3	5	6,9	-	-	10	12,5
Stellenbosch	7	8,8	1	1,4	-	-	2	2,5
Wits	7	8,8	3	4,2	-	-	1	1,3
Foreign univ.	5	6,3	0	0,0	4	50,0	4	5,0
Other	12	14,9	10	13,8	-	-	8	10,0
TOTAL	80	100,0	72	100,0	8	100,0	80	100,0

The available information on the files again broadly shows that by and large 60% of all BEd students live relatively near to a residential university. The reasons for their preference for Unisa should be investigated.

7. THE CONTRIBUTION OF UNISA TOWARDS POST GRADUATE STUDIES IN EDUCATION IN THE R.S.A.

Universities of the Republic of South Africa annually submit certain information to the Department of National Education by way of documents called "Financial and related statements". These documents for the 1985 academic year were used to extract the information used in the tables in this section.

7.1 BEd studies

Table 6.1 (page 17) reflects the BEd enrolment and the number of BEd degrees awarded by the universities in the R.S.A. in 1985.

TABLE 7.1 BED ENROLMENT (E) AND BED-DEGREES AWARDED (A) IN THE R.S.A. IN 1985

UNIVERSITY	WHITES				COLOURED				ASIANS				BLACKS				TOTAL			
	E	%	A	%	E	%	A	%	E	%	A	%	E	%	A	%	E	%	A	%
UNISA	412	31,7	79	17,6	73	23,2	6	18,8	263	62,5	56	50,9	306	34,7	32	16,4	1054	36,1	173	22,0
CAPE TOWN	57	4,4	28	6,2	27	8,6	13	40,6	2	0,5	1	1,0	11	1,2	7	3,6	97	3,3	49	6,2
DURBAN WESTVILLE	0	0,0	0	0,0	1	0,3	0	0,0	45	10,7	15	13,6	6	0,7	0	0,0	52	1,8	15	1,9
FORT HARE	0	0,0	5	1,1	0	0,0	0	0,0	1	0,2	0	0,0	113	12,7	47	24,1	114	3,9	52	6,6
NATAL	52	4,0	26	5,8	12	3,8	4	12,5	88	20,9	30	27,3	42	4,8	18	9,2	194	6,6	78	9,9
UNIV. OF THE NORTH	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	203	23,0	35	18,0	203	7,0	35	4,5
UNIV. OF O.F.S.	74	5,7	40	8,9	8	2,6	2	6,3	0	0,0	0	0,0	5	0,6	0	0,0	87	3,0	42	5,3
J.P.E.	47	3,6	17	3,8	8	2,6	1	3,1	1	0,2	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	56	1,9	18	2,3
PU for CHE	180	13,8	60	13,4	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	6	0,7	1	0,5	186	6,4	61	7,7
PRETORIA	169	13,0	60	13,4	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	169	5,8	60	7,6
R.A.U.	148	11,4	46	10,2	4	1,3	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	152	5,2	46	5,9
RHODES	27	2,1	11	2,4	13	4,1	4	12,5	9	2,1	3	2,7	26	2,9	5	2,6	75	2,6	23	2,9
STELLENBOSCH	73	5,6	52	11,6	3	1,0	1	3,1	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	76	2,6	53	6,7
WESTERN CAPE	1	0,1	0	0,0	163	51,9	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	164	5,6	0	0,0
WITS UNIVERS.	60	4,6	25	5,6	2	0,6	1	3,1	12	2,9	5	4,5	99	11,2	50	25,6	173	5,9	81	10,3
ZULULAND	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	67	7,6	0	0,0	67	2,3	0	0,0
VISTA	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0
TOTAL	1300	100,0	449	100,0	314	100,0	32	100,0	421	100,0	110	100,0	884	100,0	195	100,0	2919	100,0	786	100,0

From this table, the significant contribution of Unisa to BEd study in the R.S.A. is obvious. Unisa enrolled 36,1% of all BEd students and awarded 22% of all BEd degrees in 1985. The table also highlights the fact that 62,6 of all the 1985 Asian BEd students were registered at Unisa and that 50,9% of those in this population group who graduated in 1985, were Unisa students; 34,7% of all Black students in 1985 were studying at Unisa while Black Unisa students comprised 16,4% of all Black BEd graduates in 1985.

7.2 MEd studies

The information in tables 5.1.2 and 5.1.3 (page 8) shows a fairly limited growth or decline in enrolment at Unisa from 1984 - 1986. Because of the relatively small growthrate at most of the residential universities during this period, it can be expected that the MEd and DEd enrolment at these universities would not differ largely from the 1985 enrolment.

The much smaller numbers of degrees awarded at MEd and DEd levels as well as a greater variation from year to year in the numbers who graduate, should be taken into account when interpreting tables 7.2 and 7.3.

Table 7.2 (page 19) reflects the MEd enrolment and the number of MEd degrees awarded by the universities in the R.S.A. in 1985.

Unisa enrolled 16,3% of all MEd students and awarded 19,4% of all MEd degrees. The very high percentages for the Asian population group are again very conspicuous; 56,1% of all the enrolments and 61,5% of degrees awarded.

TABLE 7.2 MED ENROLMENT (E) AND MED-DEGREES AWARDED (A) IN THE R.S.A. IN 1985

UNIVERSITY	WHITES				COLOURED				ASIANS				BLACKS				TOTAL			
	E	%	A	%	E	%	A	%	E	%	A	%	E	%	A	%	E	%	A	%
UNISA	116	14,4	27	16,4	9	11,4	1	12,5	37	56,1	8	61,5	17	11,4	4	20,0	179	16,3	40	19,4
CAPE TOWN	41	5,1	8	4,8	2	2,5	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	2	1,3	0	0,0	45	4,1	8	3,9
DURBAN WESTVILLE	2	0,2	1	0,6	0	0,0	0	0,0	7	10,6	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	9	0,8	1	0,5
FORT HARE	1	0,1	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	33	22,2	4	20,0	34	3,1	4	1,9
NATAL	17	2,1	6	3,6	2	2,5	0	0,0	3	4,5	0	0,0	3	2,0	1	5,0	25	2,3	7	3,4
UNIV. OF THE NORTH	2	0,2	2	1,2	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	5	3,4	0	0,0	7	0,6	2	1,0
UNIV. OF O.F.S.	61	7,6	15	9,1	2	2,5	1	12,5	0	0,0	0	0,0	14	9,4	6	30,0	77	7,0	22	10,7
U.P.E.	47	5,9	6	3,6	8	10,1	1	12,5	1	1,5	0	0,0	2	1,3	0	0,0	58	5,3	7	3,4
PU for CHE	95	11,8	8	4,8	1	1,3	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	3	2,0	0	0,0	99	9,0	8	3,9
PRETORIA	113	14,1	18	10,9	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	2	1,3	0	0,0	115	10,5	18	8,7
R.A.U.	120	14,9	28	17,0	6	7,6	2	25,0	3	4,5	1	7,7	17	11,4	0	0,0	146	13,3	31	15,5
RHODES	27	3,4	10	6,1	0	0,0	0	0,0	1	1,5	0	0,0	10	6,7	1	5,0	38	3,5	11	5,3
STELLENBOSCH	85	10,6	22	13,3	6	7,6	3	37,5	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	91	8,3	25	12,1
WESTERN CAPE	2	0,2	0	0,0	33	41,8	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	35	3,2	0	0,0
WITS UNIVERSITY	71	8,9	13	7,8	10	12,7	0	0,0	14	21,3	4	30,8	27	18,1	4	20,0	122	11,1	21	10,2
ZULULAND	1	0,1	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	5	3,4	0	0,0	6	0,5	0	0,0
VISTA	3	0,4	1	0,6	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	9	6,1	0	0,0	12	1,1	1	0,5
TOTAL	804	100,0	165	100,0	79	100,0	8	100,0	66	100,0	13	100,0	149	100,0	20	100,0	1098	100,0	206	100,0

7.3 DEd studies

Table 7.3 (page 21) reflects the DEd enrolment and the number of DEd degrees awarded by universities in the R.S.A. in 1985.

Unisa enrolled 22,6% of all DEd students and awarded 32,4% of all doctorates during that year. The overwhelming dominance of white students at this level is another feature of this table.

8. COMPARISON OF THE MEd AND THE DEd DEGREES AWARDED BY SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES IN 1985

In an attempt to compare the output by universities at the level of MEd and DEd studies, it was decided that a comparison of the ratio of MEd and DEd degrees awarded to the BEd enrolment would give some acceptable basis. It is for obvious reasons, impossible to take the initial BEd enrolment of a particular group and follow that group through to the DEd level. In table 8, the BEd enrolment at each university for 1985 was used as a basis for comparison. Table 8 (page 22) give the number of MEd and DEd degrees awarded in 1985 as a percentage of the BEd enrolment at the institution for the same year.

Because of the fact that different universities have different growth rates and variation in enrolment patterns, the given table should be regarded as interesting information about the situation in a given year.

TABLE 7.3 DED ENROLMENT (E) AND DED-DEGREES AWARDED (A) IN THE R.S.A. IN 1985

UNIVERSITY	WHITES				COLOURED				ASIANS				BLACKS				TOTAL			
	E	%	A	%	E	%	A	%	E	%	A	%	E	%	A	%	E	%	A	%
UNISA	78	22,4	22	32,4	1	11,1	1	100	3	50,0	0	0,0	5	22,8	0	0,0	87	22,6	23	32,4
CAPE TOWN	10	2,9	1	1,5	2	22,2	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	1	4,5	0	0,0	13	3,4	1	1,4
DURBAN-WESTVILLE	3	0,9	1	1,5	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	3	0,8	1	1,4
FORT HARE	2	0,6	1	1,5	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	2	0,5	1	1,4
NATAL	10	2,9	2	2,9	0	0,0	0	0,0	2	33,3	1	100,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	12	3,1	3	4,2
UNIV. OF THE NORTH	1	0,3	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	2	9,1	0	0,0	3	0,8	0	0,0
UNIV. OF O.F.S.	25	7,2	7	10,3	1	11,1	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	5	22,8	0	0,0	31	8,1	7	9,9
U.P.E.	15	4,3	2	2,9	1	11,1	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	16	4,2	2	2,8
PU for CHE	37	10,6	7	10,3	0	0,0	0	0,0	1	16,7	0	0,0	2	9,1	1	100,0	40	10,4	8	11,3
PRETORIA	51	14,7	8	11,8	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	51	13,3	8	11,3
R.A.U.	34	9,8	2	2,9	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	2	9,1	0	0,0	36	9,3	2	2,8
RHODES	10	2,9	0	0,0	2	22,2	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	1	4,5	0	0,0	13	3,4	0	0,0
STELLENBOSCH	46	13,2	9	13,2	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	46	12,0	9	12,7
WESTERN CAPE	4	1,2	0	0,0	2	22,2	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	6	1,6	0	0,0
WITS UNIVERSITY	17	4,9	4	5,9	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	3	13,6	0	0,0	20	5,2	4	5,6
ZULULAND	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	1	4,5	0	0,0	1	0,3	0	0,0
VISTA	4	1,2	2	2,9	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	4	1,0	2	2,8
TOTAL	347	100,0	68	100,0	9	100,0	1	100,0	6	100,0	1	100,0	22	100,0	1	100,0	384	100,0	71	100,0

TABLE 8 MED AND DED DEGREES AWARDED IN 1985 AS A PERCENTAGE OF BED ENROLMENT IN 1985

UNIVERSITY	BEd enrolment	MEd degrees awarded	MEd degrees BEd enrolment as %	DEd degrees awarded	DEd degrees BEd enrolment as %
UNISA	1054	40	3,8	23	2,3
CAPE TOWN	97	8	8,2	1	1,0
DURBAN WESTVILLE	52	1	2,0	1	2,0
FORT HARE	114	4	3,5	1	0,8
NATAL	194	7	3,6	3	1,5
UNIV. OF THE NORTH	203	2	1,0	0	0,0
UNIV. OF THE O.F.S.	87	22	25,3	7	8,0
U.P.E.	56	7	12,5	2	3,6
PU for CHE	186	8	9,3	8	9,3
PRETORIA	169	18	10,7	8	4,7
R.A.U.	152	31	20,4	2	1,3
RHODES	75	11	14,7	0	0,0
STELLENBOSCH	76	25	32,9	9	11,8
WESTERN CAPE	164	0	0,0	0	0,0
WITS UNIVERSITY	173	21	12,1	4	2,3
ZULULAND	67	0	0,0	0	0,0
VISTA	0	1	-	2	-

9. CONCLUSION

Distance education has gained acceptance as a mode of education up to the highest tertiary levels. Teachers form a significant portion of students who utilize the possibilities for further studies at tertiary distance education institutions. At the University of South Africa, teachers comprised 25,7% of the total enrolment of 84 040 in 1985. The tables in this paper not only indicate that distance education is an acceptable way of studying at post graduate level, but clearly show that a significant percentage of all BEd, MEd and DEd students in South Africa enrol and graduate at Unisa.

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PRACTICE TEACHING IN SPECIAL EDUCATION -
A CHALLENGE FOR DISTANCE EDUCATION

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Experts in the field of Special Education all over the world agree that the training of teachers in this field requires a hands on experience. Thus a component where students are allowed to put into practice the knowledge acquired in the theoretical subjects and actually teach handicapped children is essential. Students need to gain first hand knowledge of how handicapped pupils experience their world, what their specific needs are and how they have to compensate for their handicaps. Observation skills, interpreting signs of emotional stress and the ability to ascertain whether teaching strategies are appropriate for a specific child, cannot be gained from a textbook.

Is it then feasible to train teachers for Special Education through Distance Teaching? In the Department of Orthopedagogics at the University of South Africa courses are presented to qualify teachers for Special Education in the following fields:

neurally handicapped, severely mentally handicapped,
 aurally handicapped and visually handicapped.

How is the problem of practice teaching overcome?

Firstly, all the diplomas in these fields are essentially acquired by means of in-service training. Teachers who have no Special Education qualifications and are employed at Special schools enrol for these courses as part time correspondence students. After having completed some of the theoretical subjects they begin working on prescribed practical assignments and projects. They become involved with:

- . research in regard to a particular class, the project class,
- . communication with other members of the interdisciplinary team, and

- . compilation of Individual Education Programmes (IEP's).

All the above serve as a preliminary examination for admission to the actual practical teaching test. This test is conducted by the lecturer in the classroom of a particular school and entails:

- . that the student presents two well prepared lessons and
- . undergoes an oral examination on all aspects involving the handicaps of the pupils in the project class.

The final examination mark is compiled from the marks given to the assignments, the practical teaching tests and an assessment by the school principal.

Besides the presentation of these specialized courses the Department of Orthopedagogics also trains remedial teachers. The remedial teachers are sometimes employed in special schools but more often function in the main stream of Education Departments. For the practical training of these students Unisa has to liaise very closely with the Education Departments involved. A prerequisite for enrolling for this course is at least a degree and a teacher's diploma, or a three year teacher's diploma. Furthermore, at least three years of teaching experience is required.

On having completed at least three of the theoretical subjects they embark on the practical teaching experience. The Education Departments assign these students to special schools or school clinics, where they teach individual children from January to August. Qualified remedial teachers act as their supervisors.

They are required to submit three well structured reports about the children being taught to the Unisa lecturer and receive comments on these. At the end of the teaching session in August, lesson plans are filed in a record book and forwarded to the lecturer.

The lecturer assesses the student on the above, while the supervisor evaluates the students on a five point rating scale on aspects such as

being able to make contact with a child and relationships with clinic staff and teachers.

Twice a year the lecturer has group discussions at five centres: Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, Pretoria, Durban and Bloemfontein or Kimberley. During the first series of discussion classes the lecturer makes sure that the students understand the study programme; problems with the diagnosis of individual children are discussed; diagnostic teaching and observation skills receive emphasis.

At the second series of group discussions each student in turn presents a profile of the children he is teaching including problem areas, lesson objectives, teaching strategies and he demonstrates teaching aids. Students discuss the appropriateness of strategies, exchange ideas and often exhibit their handmade apparatus.

In this audio-slide presentation the challenge of providing well qualified special educators will be depicted and principals and administrators will attest to the success of our endeavour.

ACCOUNTABLE TEACHER TRAINING IN UNIVERSITY
DISTANCE EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

Education and training is not something to be experienced and enjoyed by the privileged few anymore. All over the world the need for education of the masses has become an overpowering drive for rapid development. Educational development has always been a slow and ongoing event. Recently development in the technological field (especially computer technology) has by far surpassed the radical change in human life style caused by the industrial revolution of the eighteenth century. What could be termed an idilic situation of not so many years ago has become a situation of extreme educational need and in comparison, the future looks somewhat alarming at this stage. In extreme contrast to the past, there is no longer a "natural" demand from the population for a normal amount of further education of some kind, but an inescapable demand on the total population for continued education, nowadays generally referred to as life-long education. The multitude of possible reasons for this situation cannot be dealt with in this paper. In the same manner and for reasons of insufficient time and space a number of aspects concerning the discussion will also just be mentioned in context and not explained in detail. What needs our attention is the fact that to meet the demand for an increase in the amount of basic education and more quality education, there need to be sufficient numbers of adequately qualified teachers. It should be understood that to acquire adequate qualifications does not mean to succumb to didactic materialism. This simply means to educate teachers to meaningfully apply the knowledge in the fabric of their own existence (Greyling 1987).

In order to maintain an acceptable standard of education, all teachers have to keep up with the development in the world at large, and especially with the technological development on the demand for different levels of existing knowledge. This means that all teachers continually have to upgrade their knowledge and teaching techniques and educating abilities either by self-education or guided instruction in the form of formal or non-formal educa-

tion and training. In developing countries there are not many options open for self-development and much depends on the educational infrastructure of a specific country. The South African situation is one of three worlds (first, second and third worlds) rolled into one where the country currently finds itself under pressure for crash development in the education field. This is mainly a result of the aftermath of the English colonial policies and development models of yesteryear. The swing of the education pendulum which has by evolution started to swing on its own accord in favour of the Black population and for obvious reasons, is being forcefully intensified by a push from forces other than those educational forces within the traditional Anglo-Saxon-inspired model.

The problematic of the South African education situation reveals the population to be in various stages of being well educated, poorly educated, or still illiterate. The tendency of a demand for sufficient education (schooling) to perform a specific task has shifted to a demand for more and/or specialised knowledge to either be able to perform basic tasks or to perform that task better. This means there is a quest for a type of education which would enable a person to acquire work of any kind or a specific kind or to hold onto an appointment. Such is the position today and in this way the position is going to be aggravated. This "vocation-inflation" is therefore escalating towards a position of "vocation-depression" which in turn is one of the main reasons for the migration of the labour force of rural areas to cities. A spiraling effect is put in motion with regard to mechanisation, industrialisation, specialisation, automation, etc.

RESTRICTING FACTORS IN DISTANCE TEACHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Institutions which are responsible for the education of teachers - be it basic or extended education and training - cannot operate without sufficient funds. Therefore a much more significant percentage of the gross national income will have to be allocated to education. Another aspect is the availability of facilities. Many more physical facilities are needed to meet the demand for basic formal education. Provided that politically instigated emotionally over-reactive destruction tendencies can be finally curbed and prevented, much can be done to utilise existing structural facilities for training purposes. Another problem factor is access to existing libraries, mechanical devices and aids such as tape recorders, video machines, television, etc. Even the telephone is not as readily available

and not utilised by many students as could be expected. The type of instructional programme is a possible reason for a considerable portion of the drop-out figures in distance education. All blacks have to communicate mostly through the medium of English as a second language. At its best English is a poor substitute for the mother tongue of a person where the transmission of knowledge is concerned. In this regard a correspondence package alone, lack of motivation, quality of learning material, lack of the implementation of mastery-learning principles are some negative aspects that could influence the outcome of distance study. Lastly it would suffice to name geographic and transport problems as factors that hamper the smooth execution of different models of distance education in general and the Unisa model in particular, especially with regard to the contact element.

ASPECTS OF THE TEACHER TRAINING AND EDUCATION SITUATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

Demographically speaking, South Africa has the most, or one of the most, complex cosmopolitan populations in the world. It is a natural phenomenon that certain races tend to form individual and sometimes exclusive social groups. All over the world the social life-style of nations has had some effect on the political and government system of any given country, and in particular on its education system. The teacher training situation is illustrated in the following tables:

TABLE 1 : POPULATION ESTIMATES UP TO 2020

POPULATION GROUP	1985	1990	2000	2010	2020
Total	27056100	29877300	36208300	43367500	52012500
Whites	4852000	5164000	5817000	6467000	7187000
Coloureds	2843000	3071000	3607000	4187000	4859000
Asians	893100	964300	1108300	1256500	1424500
Blacks	18468000	20678000	25676000	31457000	38540000

(Source: Central Statistics Service, Pretoria 1986 : 1.4).

In 1984 the total enrolment at colleges of education was as follows:

TABLE 2 : TOTAL COLLEGE ENROLMENT

	Whites	Coloureds	Asians	Blacks
Residential Colleges of education	10 703	4 455	1 686	18 104
Colleges of Education for further training	2 956	683		
TOTAL	13 659	5 138	1 686	18 104

(Source: Central Statistics Service, Pretoria 1986 : 5.61-5.63).

The above figures do not include in-service training or other means of further education.

The approximate ratio of teachers trained per population group were 0,28% Whites, 0,18% Coloureds, 0,18% Asians and 0,10% Blacks. There are currently a large number of Whites serving in schools for Blacks. It seems as if only a small percentage of Blacks are interested in a teaching career. If this is the case, then an intensive recruiting campaign should be lodged to ensure a much more favourable forecast with regard to the development of Black education. This aspect has implications for distance teacher education.

If the qualification requirements used as a standard in White education, i.e. that

- for primary education a Std.10 and three years tertiary education (academic and professional) and
- for secondary education a Std. 10 and a four year tertiary education (including professional training)

is needed, the HSRC Report of 1986 on distance education of teachers states that in 1985, 97% of all Black teachers do not comply with the requirements. This does not exclude the fact that many Whites and Asians do not comply with all the requirements either. In Coloured education 71% of all teachers are under-qualified. About 66% of the White teachers employed by the Department of Education and Training are under-qualified.

The number of teachers for Blacks according to academic and professional qualifications in 1985 were as follows:

TABLE 3a : DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING (DET)
AND THE NATIONAL STATES

Professionally unqualified					
	Std 8 & Lower	Tech Cert.	Std 10	Degree	Sub Total
DET	5 485	76	2 221	209	7 991
NATIONAL STATES	6 479	35	7 302	195	14 011
TOTAL	11 964	111	9 523	404	22 002

TABLE 2b :

Professionally qualified							
	Std 8 & Lower	Tech Cert.	Std 10 + 1 year	Std 10 + 2 years	Std 10 + 3 years	Degree	Sub Total
DET	22 907	180	8 588	2 752	1 740	1 169	37 336
NATIONAL STATES	21 182	80	13 539	3 550	2 360	1 362	42 073
TOTAL	44 089	260	22 127	6 302	4 100	2 531	79 409

DET : 45 327

NATIONAL STATES : 56 084

TOTAL : 101 411

(Source: Research Institute for Education Planning, No. 6, 1985).

The picture unfolding from the above-mentioned figures emphasizes the need for more basic and quality education. To achieve this goal more adequately qualified teachers are needed to serve all the population groups, but especially the Black and Coloured groups. In this regard three types of training needs have been identified by the HSRC Report (1986 : 47), namely:

- the need for additional schooling for more than 55 000 teachers who do not have Std. 10;
- the need of 6 410 primary and 3 394 secondary school teachers to acquire a professional qualification, and
- the need of 14 308 primary and 17 175 secondary school teachers to acquire tertiary training in addition to their Std. 10 plus a professional qualification.

Other factors, named by the HSRC Report, which contribute towards the restriction of educational development are the large number of pupils per teacher and the rapidly growing Black school population.

THE RECOURSE TO DISTANCE EDUCATION

The training of teachers by conventional methods is slow and totally insufficient. The implementation of distance education in conjunction with traditional residential teacher education institutions, seems to be showing satisfactory results in filling teacher shortages and the upgrading of qualifications. In some developing countries the move is towards distance education to a larger extent. Rather than using the classic correspondence model the current trend is towards innovative locally devised models to suit the particular needs of the particular country, area or community. In this regard Brophy and Dudley (1982 : 161) recorded 60 training programmes in 40 countries. The content of the programmes varied from academic content only to professional content only to integrated programmes supported by various media.

The University of South Africa does not offer a wide variety of possibilities for basic teacher education or further education through distance education. The Black university, Vista, in conjunction with the Department of Education and Training with its training infrastructure, are currently increasing their separate and combined efforts to alleviate the teacher education problem.

Some academics (Bowman, et al., 1972) are, however, doubtful whether universities can train teachers at all or at least effectively. Brophy & Dudley (1983 : 40) maintain that there is little evidence that the distance

teaching approach, which is presently widely used for teacher education, can satisfactorily train students to teach. However, the university in a developing country - with its contribution towards teacher education - is subject to three major forces (Elton and Manwaring, 1981 : 132). According to Elton and Manwaring these forces, i.e. the present needs of the country, the traditions of the country and international academic tradition, do not always supplement each other. Solutions to the problems of one country are intransferable to any other given situation. A point of interest that could be made here is that no adventurous attempt at improving a distance teaching model can be made if the prevailing model is caught up in a restrictive rigid bureaucratised administration. One should also, however, be weary of what could be termed the "window-syndrome". Looking into a room from the outside one is struck by the sameness of each viewing, and looking out of the window, the endlessness of opportunities is so awesome that one never breaks away from the spell towards new ventures. One should either go inside or outside and do whatever is possible.

In order to ensure at least some progress towards accountable teacher education, traditional methods and strategies should be constantly re-evaluated. A point of departure that Elton and Manwaring (1981 : 132) suggest is the training of academic staff in their teaching function as a means of meeting the educational problems faced by their institutions. Although training is primarily concerned with knowledge and skills, it is also concerned with attitudes. Therefore the situatedness of the student and the task of the trainer as guiding companion in distance education is of utmost importance (Haasbroek, 1982 : 150-156). In this regard Liebenberg (1986) emphasises the role of the school and the school personnel in assisting the student teacher during practise teaching and also the newly qualified teacher.

POSSIBLE STRATEGIES FOR INNOVATION

Drastic changes to existing models of distance education are not necessarily immediately needed to overcome teacher shortages or the problem of insufficient qualifications. What is required is an innovative and co-operative approach to the general problem. It is a fallacy to try and maintain the pure autonomy of education institutions or training instance by moving ahead alone, and sometimes in opposition to one another. It is becoming

clear that many non-formal institutions are increasingly moving into the field of educational training and are thus becoming institutionalised. What is needed, in fact, is a national co-operative approach and the utilisation of the existing general teacher training infrastructure. The field of operation is, at the most, only incidental and vaguely demarcated. The logical result is an overlapping of interests and an unnecessary waste of effort.

Innovation needs imagination. In innovative planning the needs of the country and also those of the students should be taken into consideration. The planning of the curriculum is, therefore, all important, especially if the present teacher training institutions wish to remain in possession of the prerogative of teacher training. Gallegos (1982 : 19) points out that the potential of self-instructional, individualised programmes (such as being used in distance education) has only been partially achieved in more advanced industrial nations of the world. He maintains that "two major obstacles to the realisation of their full potential have been the availability and constant updating of instructional the materials required for implementation and the maintenance of long-term, self-instructional modes of instruction".

The following aspects of possible innovative improvement or supplement to present models of distance education of teachers need consideration, namely:

- Improvement of personnel practices.
- Improvement of programme practices.
- Meaningful inter-training participant co-operation.
- Improvement in meaning-content in curriculum development.
- Improvement in educational planning with emphasis on co-ordination.
- Training of educator (trainer) - executives such as school principles, teachers and superintendants.

The last point is especially important to counter a possible influx of teachers (students) which would cause a strong demand for trainers. Highly trained and skilled personnel (teachers) could then be redirected towards academic and other training institutions.

The College of Education for Further Training of the Department of Education and Training currently makes use, inter alia, of the "IVIS"-system

(Integrated Video Instructional System)(JDC Huygen, 1987). The programme includes contact sessions and operates on mastery-learning principles. Increasing interest is also experienced in computer technology with regard to instruction and examination programmes (Van den Bogaerde : 1986). A word of caution is, however, expressed by Gallegos (1982) to be careful not to educate for the sake of education because present day man is not attuned to rapid change.

Other aspects of innovation such as functional utilisation of facilities and trained personnel in extended, adapted or other forms of current practices are open for consideration. The current practice of "group discussions" at satellite venues could be explored to enhance better and more frequent face-to-face contact situations.

CONCLUSION

The above discussion is necessarily brief and selective. The objective is to arouse interest in the innovative possibilities of co-ordinated co-operation between all concerned in teacher education and training efforts. In that way teacher education could possibly become a more accountable venture. In doing so it should be borne in mind that universities educate (train?) teachers on a voluntary basis. It still remains the teacher's responsibility to acquire the further training he needs. The Education Departments, however, are under obligation to accept responsibility for teacher education and training and also further training. Their responsibility for basic and in-service training is compulsory by nature. Greater co-operation between governmental institutions and the more autonomous universities is surely possible. Educational planners and curriculum "experts" should get away from the stereotyped traditionalism as far as teacher education is concerned. The motto: "Do not change anything while it works well", should make way for more practical planning, experimenting and execution of ideas and programmes of education.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AS A FIELD OF STUDY AT UNISA

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1. INTRODUCTION

As indicated by the title the intention is to deal with the development of Educational Management as a field of study at UNISA since its inception in 1982. In order to do this effectively, the following aspects will be discussed.

- * theoretical foundations
- * didactical considerations
- * recommendations.

2. THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

The following matters are pertinent to this section

- * aims of the course
- * the development of educational management as a course of study
- * philosophical foundations.

2.1 Aims of the course

According to information obtained from lecturers who were involved with the initial introduction of Educational Management at this university, two very relevant questions in connection with the theoretical foundations were asked in 1981 namely

- * what were the reasons for introducing the course?
- * what should such a course accomplish for the educational practitioner and for the lecturer teaching the course?

In so far as the first question is concerned it soon became apparent that apart from the obvious reason, namely that at the time (1981) very little management training in education, if any, was being done in the RSA, UNISA was in the unique position of providing this kind

of training for all population groups. It is clear that if little management education was being done at the time in the RSA, there were probably no facilities available in this field for the training of black people. Hence the necessity for introducing such a course at UNISA.

In answering the second question it was argued in general that the course should help practising educational managers to improve their performance as managers. However, when one analyses this statement it can be seen clearly that Educational Management¹ should

- * present information and challenges that enable both the student and lecturer to reflect on the relationship between theory, research and practice
- * challenge students to clarify the goals and value systems in the study field and in their everyday operation as professional educationists in order to ascertain how goals, politics and ideology direct the choice of action of the practitioner
- * present those elements of learning that will enable the students to master the following aspects of their studies:
 - assignments
 - seminars
 - examinations
 - dissertations.

In short it can be emphasized that no pretence was made of training educational managers, the thrust of the course was to widen horizons to create a sensitivity for the field of study and to provide theoretical knowledge which has applicatory value in practice.

2.2 The development of Educational Management as a course of study

With the above facts in mind the current head of department used a structured questionnaire and contacted representatives from various education departments about the feasibility of introducing a course in Educational Management at UNISA. The results of these negotiations were so positive that various staff members of the Department of

Didactics and Comparative Education set about compiling a course.

It should be noted that although the lecturers who were involved in this action had common educational experience and that they worked with the overriding educational aim namely, educative teaching, in mind, they had been asked to help in establishing a course in a field of study where they had no or very little theoretical knowledge. The positive spin-off of this was that knowledge from related fields of study such as Didactics, Comparative Education, Public Administration, Law and Management was incorporated into Educational Management.

Eventually, a field of study with a particular perspective on the educational phenomenon was developed. This perspective can be called an educational management science perspective on the educational phenomenon. The core objectives of the course that was developed in this way can be set out as follows:²

- * to identify the functional and management tasks of the educational structure
- * to examine the role played by educational management in realising the educational aim.

In conclusion it can be stated³ that the main aspects of Educational Management which need to be explained scientifically in order to achieve the course objectives include

- * the way in which Educational Management is practised to attain the goal for which it is designed
- * the essence, nature and components of Educational Management
- * the principles which apply to individual management actions.

2.3 Philosophical foundations

As a starting point, it was accepted that there are two kinds of ontic truths namely anthropological and cosmological foundations.⁴ These foundations were used in explaining concepts such as teaching, education, educative teaching and educational management. Furthermore

it is important to note that educative teaching is the⁵

- * complete
- * differentiated
- * balanced and
- * educationally accountable

development of the learner and that the educational manager should perform his management functions in such a way that educative teaching can be realised. In order to achieve this aim Educational Management must meet the demands of managerial expertise on the one hand and be educationally accountable on the other hand. Furthermore, it is important that the management model which was selected to serve as an aid in the scientific study of Educational Management also had to be educationally answerable and accountable to the norms of managerial effectiveness. With this in mind Cloete's model⁶ which consists of the following components

- * policy-making
- * organising
- * financing
- * personnel administration
- * methods and procedures
- * control

was selected.

In conclusion, however, it must be mentioned that with the development of the field of study increasing use has been made of elements from other models. In the latest Study Guides⁷, for example, the well-known POLC (planning-organising-leading-control) model is used extensively.

3. DIDACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In this lecture the term didactical considerations is used in the widest sense of the word. It embraces a spectrum of aspects which manifest themselves in the teaching of Educational Management at UNISA. Such aspects are:

- * the professional status of the students
- * curricular matters
- * the teaching approach.

3.1 The professional status of the students

In order to determine whether the educational manager can be regarded as a professional one has to look at the requirements which are laid down for a profession. In this regard Hanekom and Thornhill⁸ carried out a very thorough study and concluded by formulating the following hypothesis of a profession:

- (i) Intensive training at acknowledged training institutions.
- (ii) Intellectual rather than manual labour.
- (iii) Development of skills in the application of what was learned.
- (iv) A specified standard of competence for admission to, and/or advancement in the profession.
- (v) A strong feeling of solidarity.
- (vi) A code of conduct, the violation of which leads to exclusion from the profession.
- (vii) An institutional aid to ensure that the competencies are utilised for the benefit of society.
- (viii) A monopoly in a specific field of activity.
- (ix) Acknowledged public status.
- (x) Most professions have forums for discussion and study of the technique or science exercised by the members of the profession.

According to this exposition it is clear that the teaching vocation/occupation can be regarded as a profession. It is indeed true that teaching complies with most of the requirements set out above. To give but a few examples: the teacher is trained at an acknowledged training institution; he performs intellectual labour; he has to have a specific standard of competence for admission as a teacher and there is a code of conduct, the violation of which leads to

exclusion from the profession. But what is the position of the educational manager? It is a fact that many principals and deputy principals have received no training in Educational Management. Furthermore, there is no recognised mouthpiece for educational managers in the RSA and one could add that the status of managerial staff is not always rated very highly especially amongst school children and their parents.

Irrespective of these facts there can be no doubt about the professionalism of educational managers. Educational staff who occupy management posts seem to concentrate on studies in this field. Staff members at UNISA have expressed the opinion that these students are very professional in their approach and highly motivated. It is also felt that these students help to inject a real measure of common sense and practicality into discussions and seminars. One can therefore only come to the same conclusion that was reached in Australia⁹ namely

that we have mature, very capable students. They can pick up limited-range theories very quickly. They are used to picking up, analysing and applying ideas quickly. They may not speak our language (research language) but they quickly learn to use the tools if they are presented in their language.

There can therefore be no arguments about the fact that the educational manager should be regarded as a professional in the strictest sense of the word and that the professional nature of Educational Management measures up fairly well to most of the standards set for a profession. It is also true that the professionalism of students in educational management has a profound interest on curricular matters and on the teaching approach that is being followed in this field of study.

3.2 Curricular matters

The curricular matters that will be discussed under this heading deal with BEd- and MEd-courses only. No attention will be given to DEd-studies mainly because the same kind of problems as in the MEd-degree tend to occur.

At UNISA¹⁰ a student for the BEd with specialisation in Educational Management has to take 6 compulsory subjects consisting of

- * Fundamental Pedagogics;
- * General Empirical Education;
- * Special Empirical Education;
- * History of Education;
- * Didactics;
- * Comparative Education.

In addition to these, 4 modules in Educational Management must be passed in order to obtain this degree.

In so far as the course contents are concerned the initial idea was to create a sensitivity in students for educational management and to achieve this aim an attempt was made to cover as wide a variety of topics as possible. With the new courses (compiled in 1986) this tendency continued but there was a definite swing towards a democratic-human relations approach and away from formal and bureaucratic theories. This can be seen from the fact that aspects like:

- * full participation in decision making (committee system)
- * consensus or compromise rather than division and conflict
- * peer group control
- * team management
- * classroom management
- * the role of stress in Educational Management
- * the importance of informal organisational aspects like the school climate
- * micro-politics

have received much more attention than in the previous syllabuses.

Above-mentioned changes appeared against the background that we in South Africa live in a changing world. Not only have we to deal with the increasing complexity of the technological environment but to a great extent with sociological and political changes as well. If this is seen together with the fact that there has always been a tendency amongst school principals to be conservative and reactive

leaders the necessity for these syllabus changes become obvious.

The MED-course does not consist of fixed themes. The emphasis is being placed on accommodating the needs and demands of students. A theme should be selected to focus on problems pertaining to the context in which students perform their everyday duties.

3.3 TEACHING APPROACH

In looking at the teaching approach that is being followed in Educational Management one should keep in mind that one is dealing with a co-operative model. In other words a student undertakes studies relevant to his/her profession while simultaneously pursuing an occupation. This fact has important consequences for the whole teaching approach.

Instruction for the BEd-course takes the form of printed study guides, tutorial letters, assignments, seminars and private discussions. In contrast to other UNISA-courses there is only one venue for the annual seminar and that is Pretoria. The main advantage of this is that a team approach can be followed whereby a lecturer who specialises on a particular topic can be called upon to lecture on that topic during the seminar. This lecturer is also responsible for the section in the study guide which deals with his field of specialisation. During the seminar frequent discussions take place between lecturers and students whereby the relationship between theory and practice is emphasized. Some students have in fact commented that these discussions helped them to see the applicatory value and the beauty of theory. During these discussions use is also made of the experiential technique by doing case studies. Cases are realistic and encourage active participation in complex problem solving situations.

During the year students are also required to submit at least three assignments per module of which one is a multiple choice type. The multiple choice questions are set on the contents of the study guides in order to compel students to work through the guides before the June seminar. This makes the seminar more meaningful and enables students to partake freely in discussions.

The general idea with the essay type assignments is to encourage students to do research on particular topics in the syllabus and to afford them the opportunity to formulate their answers in an academic scientific way. These assignments have to be submitted before due dates and are marked very conscientiously because they serve as communication channel between staff and students. Apart from the fact that a minimum of 50% has to be obtained per assignment students must also pass four 2 hour examinations (1 per module) at the end of the course.

For the MEd-degree students are required to undertake research and to complete a dissertation on a topic of their choice. The dissertation is examined formally by the student's supervisor and by two other examiners of which one is not associated with this university. Teaching for the MEd-degree is of an individual nature and usually takes place in the form of correspondence, telephonic conversations and personal interviews. Lecturers have commented that MEd-students show an initial lack in the ability to undertake research and to arrange their ideas in a logical framework.

With this in mind it is generally agreed that a supervisor should see to it that:

- * a framework is established as a starting point
- * a high standard is set from the start
- * the student's writing style is academically and scientifically correct
- * the aim which is set with the dissertation is consistently endeavoured
- * argumentation is done in a logical way with the necessary sequencing of ideas.

In conclusion; the following recommendations may be of importance for future success in the teaching of Educational Management.

4. RECOMMENDATIONS

Any recommendation in the study field of Educational Management must be made against the background that the management of schools has become an

extremely demanding task. Financial constraints and a changing socio-political environment are but two of the reasons for this. The demands placed on future educational managers will be tremendous and therefore the following can be recommended.

4.1 That as many educational managers as possible receive formal and informal training in Educational Management.

In this context one can hardly believe that some education departments in South Africa are prepared to invest astronomical amounts in the training of teachers whereas little or no funds are made available for the training of educational managers.

4.2 In the light of expected future developments much more attention should be given in syllabuses to topics like

- * the economics of education
- * school law
- * conflict management
- * the management of change
- * the politics of school management.

4.3 The philosophical foundations of Educational Management should be investigated with renewed interest. In doing this insights from related fields of study must be scrutinized very closely. The author believes for example that socio-pedagogical insights could be of great value for Educational Management.

4.4 A course in Educational Management should be made compulsory for all teacher training programmes. This will enable teachers to gain an understanding of the problems that are faced by the principal and his/her deputies. Furthermore the emphasis in these courses should be on classroom management and not school management. It may be mentioned that this innovation has already been introduced at UNISA with great success.

4.5 MEd-students should be encouraged to focus on problems in their field of practice instead of doing dissertations of a general nature.

If this is done the number of topics available for research in the field of Educational Management will not be easily exhausted and students' work will be of practical value.

- 4.6 A course in educational research methods should be introduced for MEd-students. This is necessary because lecturers are of the opinion that they have to teach a research course to every student they supervise. However, such a course cannot be introduced in isolation and will probably have to form part of a full time MEd.
- 4.7 Greater guidance should be given to external examiners as to the criteria used in examining. The aspects mentioned in paragraph 3.3 could well be used as a starting point.

5. CONCLUSION

The field of Educational Management is without doubt one of the most exciting study fields for the future. It seems very realistic to expect dramatic and even traumatic changes in the near future and therefore educational leaders will have to realise that the management styles and techniques that they acquired during the early years of their careers are inappropriate for dealing with the managerial problems generated by our modern society.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The introduction of a post-graduate diploma in preprimary education in 1968 offered a challenging but interesting task to the Faculty of Education at UNISA. The training of preprimary teachers through distance education was at first regarded with considerable apprehension. A teaching course for preprimary teachers through distance education ran counter to all traditional educational principles and serious complaints were launched by people concerned about the standard of preprimary education. Fortunately the more mature, independent student proved that the seemingly impossible task could be completed successfully. Lighty (1971: 21) describes the student in distance education as follows:

"He is generally an adult student. He has a fairly definite idea as to what he needs and wants, and often an almost equally definite idea as to what he does not want".

This is indeed true about the preprimary students of UNISA who are noticed in the ranks of inspectors, lecturers, principals of schools in white, black, asian and coloured communities throughout South Africa. In 1986 612 students were enrolled in preprimary education.

The aim of the course is to equip the student with specialised theoretical knowledge of early childhood education as well as with the expertise to apply this knowledge in the practical teaching situation. The curriculum focuses on the professional training of the preprimary teacher.

2. FACTORS INFLUENCING THE CURRICULUM OF TRAINING PROGRAMMES

During the last two decades socio-economic, political and educational forces have influenced a renewal of interest in early childhood education. In South Africa the H S R C report on preprimary education in 1983 and the subsequent White Paper stressed the importance of preschool education and the bridging year aimed at promoting school readiness was introduced.

Although socio-economic and political forces are relevant in that they indicate what is expected of preschool education in terms of learning effect and educative function, particular attention should be paid to the educational research that was responsible for changing conceptions about the value of pre-school education. Reilly (1983: 7) refers to the following three interrelated areas:

- 2.1 The role of early experience in determining intellectual abilities. Specific attention should be drawn to the research of Bloom and Hunt which has given tremendous impetus to the preschool movement.
- 2.2 The effect of sensory deprivation/stimulation of mental development. Frost and Kissinger (1976) refer to the studies of Bugelski, Hebb and Hunt which support the theory that perception is learned behaviour.
- 2.3 The effect of language usage patterns on children's cognitive style. Research on the critical importance of the language environment to which the child is exposed during the period of language acquisition focused the attention of preschool educators on the interdependence of language and cognitive skills.

The learning theories of Piaget and Bruner brought about new methods in the presentation of activities in the preprimary school.

Constant revision of objectives, content and evaluation of training programmes is necessary to meet the needs of preschool education.

3. THE PREPRIMARY DIPLOMA AT UNISA

Students enrol for the H.E.D. (Preprimary) or the H.E.D. (Post-graduate Preprimary) depending on their qualifications at the time of enrolment.

3.1 Admission requirements

- * H.E.D. Preprimary: A recognised teacher's diploma issued after a three year teacher's training course.
- * H.E.D. (Post-graduate Preprimary): A degree which contains at least one course in each of the official languages and complies with certain entrance requirements laid down for an educational diploma.

3.2 Curriculum

The curriculum extends over at least two years.

First year

1. Historical and Fundamental Pedagogics
2. Empirical and Socio Pedagogics
3. a. Didactics
b. Literature
4. Infant health care

Second year

5. Orthopedagogics
6. a. Bible instruction
b. Creative activities
7. a. Movement activities
b. Environmental studies
8. a. Music for the Preprimary school
b. Administration and management in the preprimary school.

3.3 The method of presentation

Students receive tutorial matter comprising the following: study guides, tutorial letters with details of the required assignments, prescribed and recommended books -- the latter obtainable from the library.

3.3.1 The written assignment

By writing an assignment, the student is required to express every thought carefully and systematically on paper. Assignments require thorough preparation and the student is compelled to do independent research.

By carefully reading and analysing the students' assignments, the lecturer is able to motivate, and make adjustments according to the individual needs of the student. Every assignment is graded and the progress of the student is closely watched.

3.3.2 Bridging the gap between theory and practice

In order to make the training of preprimary students more effective, correspondence work had to be supplemented by the following:

- * Group discussions: Attendance of group discussions is strongly recommended and take place in Pretoria, Bloemfontein, Cape Town and Durban.
- * Microteaching: Second year students are engaged in micro-teaching sessions. Students take turns in presenting activities. These activities are video taped, evaluated and discussed by the group. The focus is on mastering certain teaching skills such as variation questioning and reaction.
- * Conference telephone sessions are organized on certain dates when voluntary groups of students gather in the regional offices of Cape Town and Durban to discuss various subjects and problems with the lecturers in Pretoria.

- * Audio tapes are used to enable the lecturer to listen to the presentation of the student in the preprimary school. These tapes are supplementary to the assignment which outlines the planning and evaluation of the presentation.
- * Slide programmes are used to illustrate practical aspects like the daily programme, the development of children's drawings, safety aspects and the like.
- * Video tapes on practical subjects like movement, creative activities and music are available to students and can be obtained from the library.
- * The following aspects, illustrating the method of presentation and certain teaching skills, are presented in the programmes.
 - The presentation of a movement activity which focuses on the structuring of the environment as well as the role of the teacher in guiding the children towards problemsolving and discovery.
 - The presentation of music illustrating the use of the basic concepts in music as well as the handling of percussion and melodic instruments by the children.
 - The illustration of teacher guidance with regard to exploration and discovery during a finger paint activity in the preprimary school.

3.3.3 The teaching practice

During the first year students are given practical assignments to be completed after a period of observation in a preprimary school.

During the second year, students must complete at least ten weeks' satisfactory full-time preprimary school teaching experience under the supervision of a qualified preprimary school teacher. Supervising teachers are advised on the

different aspects to be evaluated during the student's teaching practice. An evaluation form has to be completed by the supervising teacher and submitted to the lecturer on completion of the teaching practice.

A workbook containing the student's written preparation plans is monitored by the supervising teacher.

Evaluation after the presentation of various daily activities is done by the student as well as the teacher. On completion of the ten week period the workbook is submitted to the lecturer.

3.4 The Bramley preprimary school

The Bramley preprimary school opened in 1980 following the initiative taken by the UNISA Teaching Staff Association, the Association for Child and Family Care and members of the Department of Didactics. The Teaching Staff Association expressed the need for preschool facilities for the children of UNISA staff members. The Association for Child and Family Care offered to provide the building and premises formerly used by the Bramley children's home. The Department of Didactics responsible for the training of preprimary teachers saw the establishment of the school as an opportunity to further teaching practice. The aims of the school can be summed up as follows:

- * To provide a full day educational programme to children from the age of two to six years thus enabling children of UNISA staff members to attend a preprimary school close to the University.
- * To provide the opportunity for experimentation and innovation inspired by research done by the lecturers in preprimary education.
- * To further the development of teaching practice by providing a venue for the production of audio visual programmes to be used in the training programme.

- * To enable students, residing in Pretoria, to do teaching practice at the school and to serve as an example to individuals or groups of students visiting Pretoria from other parts of the country.

Bramley preprimary school is managed by a committee consisting of members of the UNISA Teaching Staff Association, the Department of Didactics and the Association for Child and Family Care. Financial assistance is provided by UNISA and the T.E.D. The lecturers in preprimary education are privileged to be able to provide their students with a working example of what preprimary education is all about.

3.5 Problems and frustrations

Distance teaching is NOT an easy method of learning. The student herself must assume responsibility for motivation and self-discipline. To succeed, a student should be able to read well, to write well and to discipline herself to carry out tasks in an orderly and systematic way.

Existing knowledge about formal teaching in the primary and high school can be a problem because students find it difficult to adapt to the informal learning environment of the preprimary school.

Reasons for choosing preprimary education may influence a student's attitude. Some students enrol for the H.E.D. Preprimary but never intend teaching in a preprimary school, because the higher qualification brings financial gain in their existing teaching position. Indifference occurs when the student realises that she is not going to apply the knowledge.

Cultural differences may pose problems with regard to the practical implementation of subjects like music, art and biblical instruction.

The problem regarding change and innovation with reference to new methods is the single most frustrating aspect of the teacher trainer's task. Mackenzie (1971: 47) refers to a myth associated with education, namely, That conformity is always a virtue and that innovations are evil.

The student's teaching practice draws on the expertise of the principal and staff of preprimary schools to a significant extent. Students are often confused when outdated authoritarian "do-as-I-say" methods still prevail. Students still find themselves prevented from implementing new methods because of this resistance to change in preprimary education.

The didactical approach recommended in our diploma calls for the opportunity to realise all the modes of learning and particularly for developing potential for analysis, synthesis, identifying relationships, classifying, problem solving via divergent or convergent thinking and creativity.

It is with these objectives in mind that new methods are researched and introduced. These methods are in opposition to the traditional authoritarian approach where teachers set the guidelines and children are expected to conform. They reject the belief that children will not know what to do without continuous and careful direction. New methods cannot merely be dismissed because people are not familiar with them or do not bother to question the objectives. Teachers are too often more concerned about content and performance than objectives and involvement.

4. CONCLUSION

The role of the University extends far beyond the training of students. The need for research is stressed in the H S R C report.

"In general, there is very little research on the preschool child being undertaken in the R.S.A. Information gathered through scientific investigation is needed to assist teachers,

planners and programme designers if responsible innovation is to emerge in the preschool world".

(1983 par. 5.12)

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A STRATEGIC APPROACH TO MANAGEMENT EDUCATION IN A DISTANCE
TEACHING ENVIRONMENT.

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1. INTRODUCTION

It is increasingly recognised that professional management involvement is of critical importance as a factor of economic and social advancement in developed and developing countries (Flores, 1984:53).

Current and anticipated future developments render efficient and effective management education and development essential in Southern Africa. In this context, and in due recognition of the fact that both time and resources need to be utilised optimally, a strategic approach to management education is examined in this paper.

This brief exposition obviously cannot do justice to all the challenges for management educators which continually emerge in the Southern African subcontinent. This attempt, therefore, should at most be regarded as exploratory with the following as its primary aims:

- ° to create an awareness of some current and anticipated future issues in management education;
- ° to stimulate debate on these and other relevant issues, and
- ° to trigger further research into the appropriate visionary management education which will be required in a semi-developed country such as South Africa - with specific reference to the role of

distance education.

In pursuance of these aims, this paper will attempt the following:

- to provide a brief overview of the current weaknesses in management education in general, and its limitations;
- to explore the characteristics of distance education (DE) as a feasible alternative to conventional full-time management education at university level;
- to indicate some directions for future management education;
- to present a strategic approach to management education in general with specific reference to distance education and to selected strategic variables; and
- to offer ideas for further research.

2. THE WEAKNESSES OF CONTEMPORARY MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

The weaknesses of management education in general, but also in a South African context, are briefly reviewed with reference to

- the dilemma of theory versus practice
- the role of the management educator
- the curriculum
- the student

*** The dilemma of theory versus practice**

Management educators are subject to conflicting sets of expectations arising from two different 'cultures' - those of academics and those of management practitioners. Table 1

reflects the basic differences in norms and values of which the effective educator should be aware, but seldom is (Cunnington, 1985:67).

TABLE 1 CONFLICTING EXPECTATIONS TO WHICH THE MANAGEMENT EDUCATOR IS SUBJECT

<u>ACADEMIC CULTURE</u>	<u>MANAGERIAL CULTURE</u>
1. Importance of knowledge and understanding.	1. Importance of demonstrable skills.
2. Focus upon theory	2. Focus upon practice
3. Emphasis on cognitive skills	3. Emphasis on action skills
4. Should have the freedom to teach what the academic wishes.	4. Should teach only relevant knowledge.
5. Research oriented towards academic journals	5. Research oriented towards management problems
6. Performance evaluated almost totally in terms of ability to get research published	6. Performance evaluated almost totally in terms of ability to get the job done
7. Importance of general research findings	7. Importance of specific research findings

The conflict indicated above is exacerbated by the fact that the personal success of the management educator depends on the appraisal of academics, while the success of practising managers is measured by short-term financial performance:

there is pressure from the business world for, in a sense, ready-to-use managerial skills and tools, while academic expectations stress the management education process at the expense of managerial expectations.

The reason for this inherent problem is that the management educator is unaware of the educational needs of the market which he serves, or he appears to be insensitive to them. This problem of partial or total ignorance of market needs is of critical importance to management education, and is addressed in the context of a strategic approach to management education in section 4.

In closing, we should like to say that we share Kinsey's views that it has become increasingly apparent that much of the recent criticism on the relevance of management education should be regarded in a constructive light rather than as an argument that management education is irrelevant, because these criticisms are designed to bring management education closer to industry's needs (Kinsey, 1986:325).

• The role of the management educator

Educator-related factors which could impede effective management education include the following (Flores 1984: 56-58; Hall 1986: 14-15; Harari & Beaty 1986:19).

- There is a lack of qualified management educators, especially in business management, which is primarily due to the fact that their job market is not limited to universities or business schools. In South Africa this situation is aggravated by unequal academic and private sector remuneration.
- There has been a lack of incentives for academic research, although it has been alleviated somewhat in South Africa in recent years. Research is

indispensable to the continued expansion of knowledge as well as to the improvement of teaching capabilities. It is well-known that a lack of research coupled with excessive consulting gives rise to the phenomenon of 'professional obsolescence', a condition reflecting academic stagnation and decline.

- The inability or reluctance of some management educators to adapt and change in response to "new" demands in the "market" for management education, or their persistence in teaching special interest subjects at the expense of broader academic demands.

• The curriculum

In the broader arena of management education, academics and the practising management fraternity have a shared responsibility to prepare for effective adaptation to anticipated change and development of proactive management and visionary leadership (Mendell & Gerjouy 1984: 28-30).

This, in effect, means that formal management education, as generally exemplified by the MBA*, should be adapted in anticipation of significant change if academic development is to be sound and if the needs of business management are to be served effectively. Indeed research in the fields of management should ensure that new developments in management education should actually precede actual managerial needs in practice.

* Much of the research on this topic is related to the MBA. In this context it should be appreciated that the Department of Business Economics at UNISA is involved in both graduate and undergraduate education, and that general principles would apply at both levels.

Managers for the year 2010 and beyond have probably not yet started their university education. If this is realised, then the demands on management educators are placed in the correct perspective - apart from the existing knowledge and those concepts and skills which are expected to remain relevant, management education should find new knowledge and develop new skills proactively, to solve the problems of the future.

Given this scenario, what is the current thinking on curricula for future management education in general, and for South Africa in particular?

The American MBA as representative of graduate management education has had a pervasive influence on the South African MBA (Harari & Beaty 1986:18). However, the typical American MBA has come in for much criticism in recent years, even to the extent that it has actually been identified as a possible cause of mismanagement and low productivity. What the standard MBA curriculum does not emphasise, according to the critics, are those things associated with managerial effectiveness, organisation vitality, and sustained growth, including aspects such as creative people management, constant innovation, simpler strategies and policies, fewer rules, more vision and passion, risk and intuition and a long-term perspective (Harari & Beaty 1986:19).

Rheder and Porter 1983:52) maintain that students receive relatively few opportunities to identify, define and struggle with problems in circumstances that encourage the development of tolerance for ambiguity, or in ways that permit the exercise of creativity, intuition and judgement. These are valuable non-cognitive managerial qualities which should be essential to the functional skills taught in traditional MBA programmes. They go on to state (p.54)

Our proposal is to achieve an improved balance in management education between the traditional focus on specialized skills and a new emphasis on judgement; between the "left brain" cognitive analysis and "right brain" skills of holistic and creative synthesis

The abovementioned criticisms are directed at the typical MBA programme in the United States, and that the majority of graduate management programmes in other countries are modelled on the United States prototype, and we therefore concur with Harari and Beaty that these issues have much more serious implications for South Africa than for the United States (1986:20).

Cultures, demographics, politics, psychological and interpersonal relationships, geography and history intimately affect management in South Africa and in many cases are completely different from comparable issues faced by American managers.

Certain core management and functional area courses should be retained, though preferably adapted to the South African situation and supported by South African case studies and other educational materials. This adaptation of curricula should, inter alia, be guided by the following requirements (keeping in mind the differences between graduate and undergraduate levels):

1. emphasis on the humanistic side of management and organisations;
2. dynamics of cultures and the effect of culture included in curricula, making them more selective and personalised;

3. negotiation and communication skills superimposed on intercultural relationships, norms, and values;
4. entrepreneurship and small business management development;
5. international dimensions of management and functional specialisation (with implications for developing countries);
6. life-long learning.

The rationale for adapting curricula along the lines suggested here is that much of the research on cross-cultural and international business management appears to support the need for differing or differential managerial styles and philosophies, depending on the country or culture that is involved (Uhlig & Vasquez 1982:45-48). European business schools have gradually been moving away from the USA model of graduate management education to specific situation-oriented education (Hunsicker 1985:153-160).

• **The student**

In view of what we have said, it can be briefly stated that one of the most serious problems caused by poor management education and/or inappropriate management curricula for a given situation or country, is the problem of "reverse training". This is the phenomenon where a management graduate, often in a job situation, has no success in applying the appropriate theoretical knowledge and techniques. This failure, is then accepted as an indication that the approaches of less qualified colleagues are right, and the graduate is unknowingly subject to a learning process that will "reverse" his business or management education. Inappropriate curricula, or educators who are insensitive to educational needs in a specific country or situation, could produce this result to the detriment of overall management education and development in general.

This stimulating issues concerning management education referred to above are briefly discussed in relation to a strategic approach to management education in a subsequent section.

3 THE CHARACTERISTICS OF DISTANCE EDUCATION AND ITS UNIQUE PROBLEMS IN CONTRAST TO CONVENTIONAL FULL-TIME MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

3.1 Introduction

In contrast to conventional full-time, residential university education, which needs no further clarification, distance education

.... includes all kinds of education characterised by non-contiguous communication. The student is at a distance from the teacher for all, or most, or part of the time of the teaching-learning process. (Holmberg 1980:91).

Apart from the unique characteristic of teacher-student remoteness, distance education, essentially involving part-time education of an adult student body - (the average age of the students of the University of South Africa is 30 years) - is furthermore characterised by:

- minimal or no formal teacher-student contact;

- considerable time delays in the dissemination or transfer of new knowledge and information to students;
- group teaching, paradoxically, directed at relatively isolated individuals with vastly diverse backgrounds;
- educational methods and procedures different from some of those traditionally employed in full-time education.

In view of this uniqueness, what are the major advantages and, also, the more serious shortcomings of distance education in the context of management education?

3.2 Problems associated with distance education

Research has indicated that most of the problems associated with distance education are due to the absence of formal, personal teacher-student contact. In addition, several criticisms have been directed specifically at management education by means of distance education:

- The gap between theory and practice cannot be bridged as easily as in full-time education where classroom simulations, role play and role reversal methods, as well as personal coaching through case studies, are relatively easy to use.

- Curriculum changes in management education and information of educational value on current developments in the dynamic world of practical business management cannot be communicated to students at short notice - with a resultant loss of impact:
- Distance education results in low motivation and, in times of crisis or problems, low student morale.
- Feedback on academic performance (assignments and tests) is slow and inadequate explanation is given of the reasons for poor, average or even excellent performance, which adversely affects motivation and morale.
- Mediocre or inappropriate utilisation of formal group discussions with students leads to frustration.
- The learning environment of the distance education student, which is entirely beyond the control of the university - as opposed to standard lecture hall and other facilities at residential universities - may not be conducive to effective studying (Smit 1986:33).

It is the intention of this paper to present a strategic approach to management education which is intended to remedy at least some of the current problems in management education and distance education. However, at the risk of pre-empting solutions and recommendations which should preferably be advanced within the framework of the envisaged strategic approach, we have decided to counter some of the above criticisms specifically directed at distance education because some of these shortcomings are less serious than they seem. Also, time does not allow for an in-depth consideration of all these issues in the strategic approach. For the latter reason, a number of advantages of distance education are also advanced .

3.3 Suggestions for improving distance education

Teaching experience and continual research by educators in distance education have helped significantly to overcome some of the above-mentioned problems. We concur with Kinsey (1986:328) that many of these so-called "shortcomings" are not serious and can be discounted, bearing the following in mind:

- Bridging the gap between management theory and practice by distance education does not appear insurmountable, for a number of reasons.

- ° Because of their age, most of these students in management are inclined to perceive and appreciate theory as a point of departure for practical orientation.
 - ° Many students pursue studies in the area of their managerial work and can therefore relate more easily to the theory. (This, in effect, largely compensates for the limited application or absence of simulations and role-playing exercises in a distance education environment.)
 - ° Contrary to popular belief, management case studies requiring written solutions and adapted to elicit the desired responses from the student can be used to great advantage in bridging the gap between theory and practice.
-
- Educators with substantial experience in distance education should write their own textbooks and study materials to conform with the specific didactical requirements of this type of education
 - Innovative educational media such as audio- and video- cassettes should be employed on their own or in conjunction with written materials, and creative, motivating educational and evaluation techniques

such as programmed learning, self-assessment examinations, and field assignments in business management can overcome at least some of the problems.

- Students receiving distance education have been found, somewhat unexpectedly, to be highly motivated. This seems to be the result of factors such as age and maturity, perceived career opportunities, their ability to relate their studies to their work, and the fact that they themselves have decided to study.
- The effectiveness of distance education can be enhanced by adapting educational methods and strategies as well as educational materials for a subject discipline to the specific requirements of distance education. Some examples are listed below.
 - ° First-time students should be given a global vision and an explanation of the general purpose of any educational programme, before embarking on subjects in detail.
 - ° Feed-back on assignments, should be prompt, with constructive criticism in friendly

language - (possibly with computer-assisted responses too) all of which demands unique communicative skills from the educator.

- ° There should be group discussions, used primarily for student interaction, as opposed to formal lecturing, to overcome educational barriers and to provide a holistic view.
- ° Creative case studies could be used to meet specific educational objectives.
- ° Executives from well-managed business enterprises should be selectively involved in lectures as well as in the development of course materials.

3.4 Advantages of distance education

Having considered guidelines for effective distance education let us look at some of its distinct advantages for management education.

- It provides educational opportunities which would otherwise have been precluded because of constraints of time, finance, or locality; in the last case it also allows for international participation and interaction.

- It provides a relatively flexible and inexpensive method of "on the job" management education, where there is no loss of valuable executive time and earning capacity.
- It allows for planned minor and major career path changes at almost any point in an individual's career.
- It provides opportunities for life- long learning.
- Gradually and almost without his knowledge, distance education involves the student in "research" which adds a component of personal and academic growth normally not associated with full-time residential study.

The weaknesses in contemporary management education and the recommendations for possible improvements in distance education should not be seen in isolation, as they are part of a larger picture. For this reason, the central theme of this paper proposes a strategic and systematic approach to academic and educational planning, which will now receive attention.

4. A STRATEGIC APPROACH TO MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

4.1 Introduction

Significant developments in strategic planning and strategic management over the last three decades have been confined almost exclusively to the business sector - and particularly to large organisations which have had to contend with increasing environmental pressures.

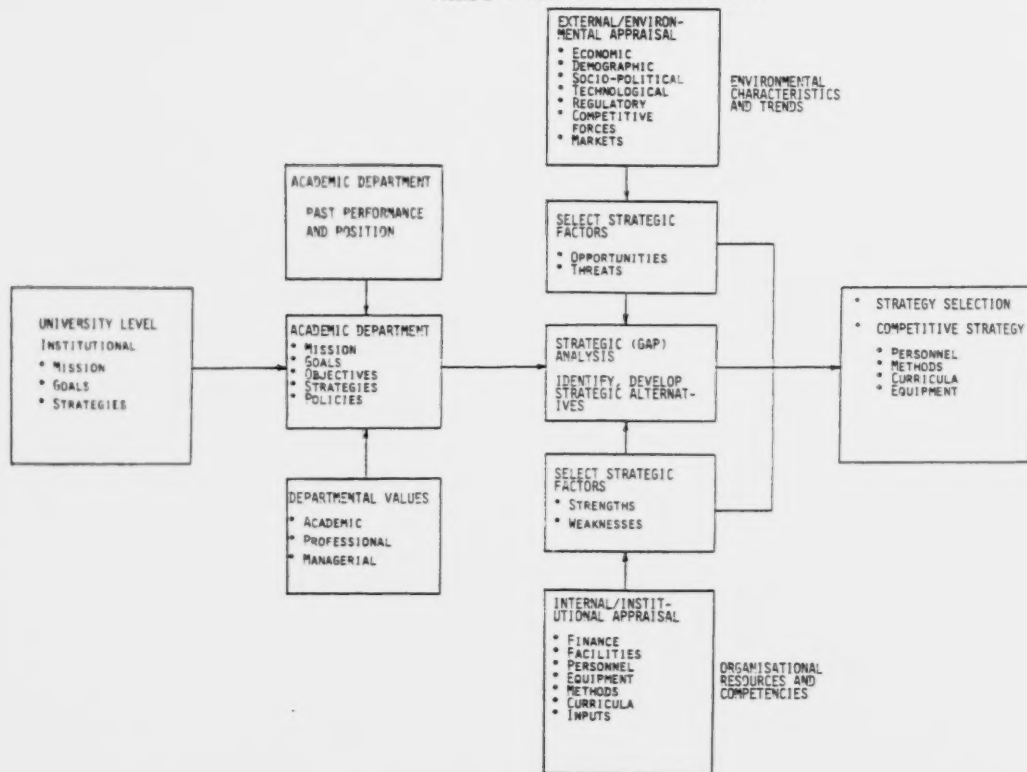
In recent years, however, it has also become increasingly clear that the public sector, and also institutions of higher education, are no longer immune to the influence of environmental forces. In institutions of higher education particularly, accountability for the efficient deployment and utilisation of scarce resources, and the effectiveness with which academic goals are pursued, have come under closer scrutiny. A strategic approach to management education for the effective management of change in an academic environment is accordingly outlined in this section .

4.2 Academic and educational strategy

The strategic management process as it relates to business organisations is well documented (Steiner 1979: 12-34; Robinson 1986: 4-5). Figure 1 reflects the basic structure of the strategic planning process which has been generally accepted by business organisations (Anderson & Dunkelberg 1987: 48).

This strategic planning framework can be readily adapted for non-profit organisations, including

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institutions of higher education. This has, been attempted in figure 1, and the generally-accepted structure of the process has been retained. Before proceeding to outline this process , we ought to mention that the strategic planning process, is only one of three major steps involved in an integrated strategic management process. The second step deals with the implementation of strategies, and the final step is the continual evaluation and control of the total process: the last two steps are not indicated in figure 1.

The time available will not allow for an in-depth discussion on the overall strategic approach to academic planning from the points of view of both the academic institution and the academic department involved in management education, and we therefore present only a cursory overview of the sequential components of the process outlined in figure 1. This brief presentation will be concluded with reference to two selected environmental variables or issues which are considered to be of the utmost importance in the context of management education in Southern Africa, namely

- the extent and seriousness as well as the diversity of the need for management education; and
- the importance of the recognition of cultural diversity in management education.

These issues have been selected to the exclusion of other equally or even more important ones (for instance the rapid deterioration of the financial position of educational institutions world-wide)

because it was felt that management educators should be acutely aware of the two abovementioned issues in particular, if there is to be effective educational planning aimed at coping with a rapidly changing environment and meeting future educational needs in Southern Africa.

As outlined in figure 1, the strategic planning process should commence with a clearly-defined mission which reflects the institution's basic philosophy, overall purpose and long-term direction. This mission should be supported by long-term qualitative goals and more specific quantified short-term objectives for the purposes of planning and performance evaluation.

At a lower organisational level, an academic department should likewise have a clearly defined mission reflecting the way in which it desires to pursue its own specific subject-related long-term academic goals (education and research). This departmental mission should unequivocally support the university's mission, goals and objectives. Past performances and academic, professional and managerial values will exert an influence in this area.

The identification and development of educational strategies and plans to achieve the predetermined departmental goals and objectives must be preceded by two vitally important activities. These are

- comprehensive appraisal and evaluation of external or environmental characteristics and trends which could significantly influence the future direction of the department; and

- thorough appraisal of internal organisational resources and departmental competencies, strengths and weaknesses.

Factors, both external and internal, which are expected to have a significant impact on the way in which the department will pursue its predetermined goals and objectives in future are identified and analysed. An important step at this stage of the overall process is to match external needs with internal resources and competencies - a step referred to as gap analysis. The application of managerial ingenuity at this point to assess the extent of the gaps which exist is of crucial importance.

With knowledge of the external and internal demands on the department, the stage is set for management to develop the alternative strategies and contingency plans to achieve the stated goals and objectives. If it is evident that the goals and objectives are simply not attainable, they should be revised in terms of attainability, which could mean that internal and external appraisals and identified strategic factors might have to be reconsidered before proceeding.

The final step in the strategic planning process - though not in the strategic management process - is the selection of appropriate strategies. For an academic department this would include the selected curricula and the teaching staff, as well as methodologies to be used and the equipment that would be required to pursue the stated goals and objectives effectively .

The discussion so far has focused on a strategic planning approach to education from the point of view

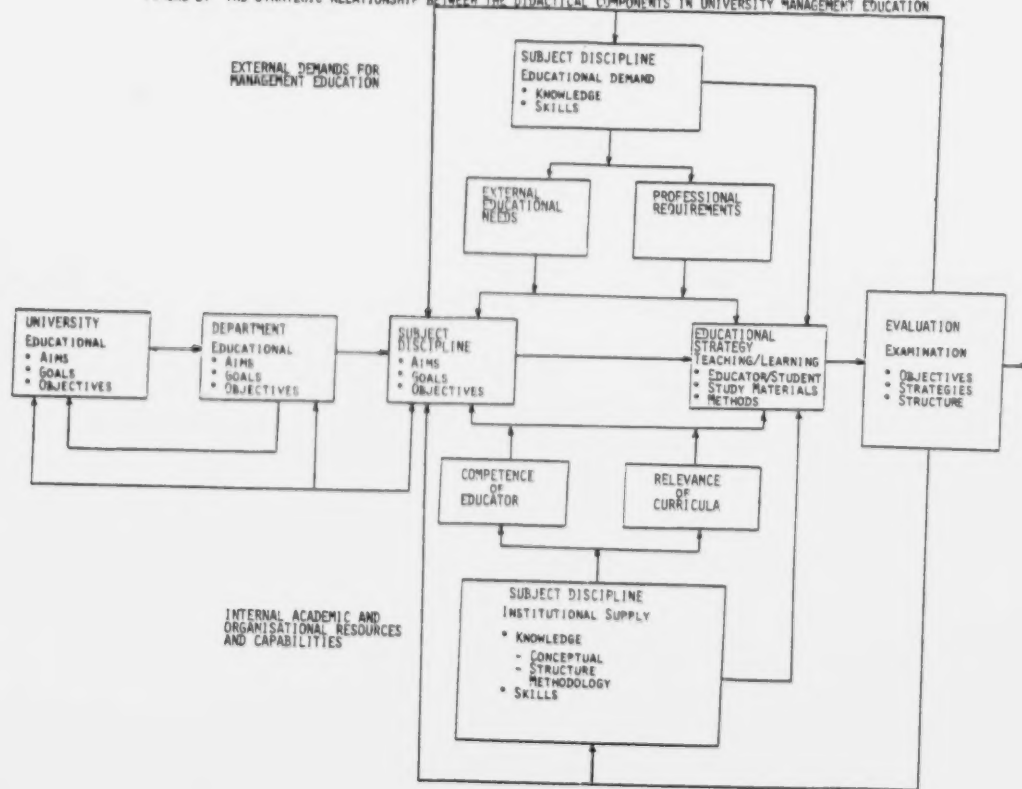
of academic management. The implications of this approach in respect of the educational process itself, however, have not been adequately discussed, and these will now be outlined briefly.

4.3 The strategic relationship between the didactical components in university management education.

The strategic-didactical relationship (Degenaar 1987) in management education is explored with reference to figure 2, which still reflects the basic structure and framework of the strategic planning process. It has, however, been expanded to include the following:

- reference to a specific subject discipline in terms of its aims, goals and objectives;
- the educational strategy which should be used - based on aims, goals and objectives and in full recognition of external educational demands as well as of internal resources and capabilities;
- the evaluation process (examinations), which should support the subject discipline aims, goals and objectives in keeping with the educational strategies which have been deployed;
- explicitly identified management educational needs (knowledge and skills) in respect of a specific subject discipline arising from the external "market", comprising the needs of students and, where applicable, of professional associations; and
- the internal departmental resources and capabilities related to the relevant subject discipline, but with specific reference to

FIGURE 2: THE STRATEGIC RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE DIDACTICAL COMPONENTS IN UNIVERSITY MANAGEMENT EDUCATION



- educator competence
- relevance and appropriateness of the curriculum.

The detailed exposition of each of these areas as well as the relationships between the various didactical components of the process should be clear from figure 2. The external educational demands and availability of resources and competencies, need to be recognised, while the strategic approach to the educational process itself should still be kept in mind.

The strategic - didactical link in this process means that

- goals formulated and objectives are set in respect of the subject discipline, and based on external demands and availability of internal resources and competencies. This is done in terms of what is to be achieved;
- educational strategies should be developed and formulated in such a way that the above goals and aims can be achieved;
- the ultimate evaluation process (examinations) should be approached in such a way that
 - the educator evaluates the student as closely as possible in terms of the goals and objectives he set out to achieve (the content relating to knowledge and skills)

- the performance of the student in terms of how well he has succeeded in achieving the set goals and objectives can be measured unambiguously

This brief overview is concluded with the reminder that most important in an assessment of this integrated approach is the fact that the student is at the centre of any educational process. In our view, although he may be an input to the process, the student is not regarded as a traditional raw material component. Neither does his successful completion of studies render the student merely an end-product of university education. What we are really looking at is a "value-added" component of knowledge and skills. How this value-added component should be measured as a basis for the evaluation of the effectiveness of the academic process as such from the point of view of a department or university is another issue altogether and one which warrants in-depth research.

The two previously mentioned environmental or external issues are now reviewed, with an indication of their importance for future management education in South Africa.

5. THE DEMAND FOR MANAGEMENT EDUCATION IN A MULTICULTURAL SOCIETY

5.1 Introduction

The strategic approach emphasises the importance of recognising the need for management education, and for planning to satisfy that need effectively. An assessment of the 'market' for management education is

the point of departure for effective academic planning. We offer an analysis of future managerial needs in South Africa and we suggest the extent to which education in general and curricula in particular should possibly be adapted to meet these needs. The discussion will be concluded with a brief indication of the demands of cultural diversity on management education.

5.2 The demand for management education

5.2.1 The nature of the demand

Management is not just a creature of the economy, it is a creator as well and only to the extent to which it masters the economic circumstances and alters them by conscious direct action does it really manage (Carter 1981:162)

If we accept this as a premise it is obvious that management education, by which management skills and knowledge are nurtured, should be sensitive to the demands of the economy which it serves.

In essence the socio-economic environment puts pressure on the educational system, and particularly on the tertiary educational system, to provide those products for which there is the biggest demand. In this regard it should be emphasised that economic growth and higher productivity are primarily dependent on the initiative of the leadership group in a society (South Africa 1980:3).

The current ratio of management to worker in South Africa is 1:42 (compared with 1:10 in developed countries), and this ratio could deteriorate to a

ratio of 1:72 in the year 2000 (South Africa 1980:3): it is evident that the demand for high level manpower (and particularly the management component) could approach critical levels in the next two decades. To address this problem purely from a management education point of view would be simplistic. Obviously factors such as population and economic growth have a direct influence (Nel, 1986:84). However, for the purposes of this discussion the contribution of goal-oriented management education to solving the perceived problem is the central theme.

The relevance of this theme becomes clear when it is realised that the real limiting factor in the year 2000 will be an ability shortage - a shortage of managerial skills, of entrepreneurship and of competency in managing business risks. This ability shortage can be subdivided into two major components, a quantitative and a qualitative demand for high level manpower.

5.2.2 External factors - the quantitative demand

The quantitative demand for high level manpower should be evaluated against demographic trends and the likely influence of these trends on both the education system and the business society.

High level manpower can be regarded as all persons engaged in professional and semi-professional occupations: technicians, and management personnel of all kinds who have formal qualifications of at least a degree or a two-year diploma (South Africa 1980:1,58).

High level manpower (HLM) therefore also comprises occupations other than "pure management". However, for purposes of this discussion the broader concept is more applicable because high level decision makers in the South African business environment include most of the above occupations.

An analysis of the statistics for high level manpower in South Africa in 1979 and 1983 indicates that the approximate contribution of the different population groups to the total HLM were whites 70%, coloureds 7%, Asians 3% and blacks 20%. (refer table 2.) If this information is compared with the data on the total number employed, it is clear that whites contribute approximately 30%, and blacks 55% to the total working population. The disproportionately high contribution of whites and the low contribution of blacks to the HLM are obvious. Of even greater importance is the fact that it is unlikely that the white population group will be able to increase their contribution to HLM in the future. This fact is supported by the very low growth rate of the white population and by the current overexploitation of this population group with regard to HLM, and forecasts that indicate that in the year 2000 the ratio of white matriculants to those of other population groups is expected to be 1:5 (South Africa 1980:64).

A new perspective to the above information can be gained by forecasts which indicate that by the year 2000 there will be a demand for 1,5 million persons with qualifications which place them in the HLM-group and that there is likely to be a shortage of 435 000 in the fully employed labour force in this category at that time (Dostal 1985:22).

**TABLE 2 : PERCENTAGE CONTRIBUTION TO MANPOWER OF DIFFERENT
POPULATION GROUPS**

POPULATION GROUP	%Contribution to HLM		%Contribution to total number employed	
	1979	1983	1979	1983
WHITES	71,9	69,0	30,0	29,3
COLOURED	7,8	7,5	11,3	11,9
ASIANS	3,2	3,3	3,7	3,7
BLACKS	17,1	20,2	55,0	55,1
TOTAL	100	100	100	100

Source: a) Manpower Survey no 15. Pretoria: Department of manpower, April 1983.

b) Department of manpower utilisation. Highlevel manpower in South Africa (report 1/80)
Pretoria: Government printer. 1980.

There can be no doubt that the above information has extremely important implications for management education.

- ° Managers from population groups other than the whites will constitute a major part of future high level decision makers. Management education will therefore have to be adapted to accommodate cultural and educational differences.
- ° The black population will represent 71% of the total South African population in the year 2000. Every effort should therefore be made to involve this group in management education at all levels. In this regard, a "real world curriculum" is of utmost importance (Nasser et al 1986:49).
- ° There is a predicted shortage of almost 0,5 million persons in the HLM-category in the year 2000. Since managerial and executive occupations form an important part of this category, management education at tertiary level should be enhanced in an effort to bridge this gap.
- ° A shortage of HLM will leave a void which will probably be filled by underqualified managerial personnel. Bridging educational programmes are vitally important for developing the required skills. Institutions at tertiary level should assist in developing suitable course materials for this purpose.

The quantitative dimension of the ability shortage clearly has direct implications for management education. In addition, the nature of the quantitative demand also has an indirect impact on the qualitative demand for management education.

5.2.3 Professional requirements - the qualitative demand

Important matters related to the qualitative dimension of the ability shortage have been mentioned above. In this section, the emphasis is on fundamental, pragmatic issues which have a direct bearing on the quality of management education for the new generation of managers indicated by the analysis of the quantitative demand. What is needed for future management education is an unorthodox approach which is based on the acceptance that the precedents created by management educators in the past will be of ever-diminishing relevance in the next two decades. The challenge for management education is to develop course materials which reflect the unique management styles and philosophies demanded by the future business environment in South Africa. This challenge is neatly summarised by Harari and Beaty (1985:20)

South Africa needs managers who understand the unique political, cultural, and social psychological features of the country better than their non-managerial counterparts.

The major qualitative aspects of the demand for management education implied in this challenge are the free enterprise system, a "real world" curriculum, a pragmatic basis, and continued education.

• **Capitalism and the free enterprise system.**

Current research overwhelmingly emphasises the fact that management educators of the future will no longer be able to take for granted that capitalism is the generally accepted and preferred economic system for South African students in management science (Prekel 1985:6; Thomas & Links 1986:109). Students from the other than white population groups, who will be the future managers of South African businesses, have a high level of resistance towards business and the free market system (Nasser et al 1986: 37). Capitalism is perceived as unable to solve the problems of South African society and as essentially exploitive by nature.

The rejection of capitalism and the free market system is potentially the gravest danger for the South African economy. Management education, at all levels, should provide factual, objective and comparative information on the principles of capitalism and the advantages of the free market system to counter this threat.

• **Real world curriculum.**

The South African educational system is inclined towards an academic value system (Nasser et al 1984:45). In opposition to this, throughout Africa a demand exists for change in education towards a requirement-oriented approach which is aimed at creating a closer relationship between education and social and economic realities (Smit 1986:6).

The quality of future management education could be greatly enhanced by teaching cognitive and problem-solving skills which are aimed at successfully contending with the dynamics of the South African business environment. Marais (1982:61) mentions, for example, that because South African firms are smaller than their American counterparts they tend to devote more time to short-term planning and control than to strategic planning. A real world curriculum for management education should be developed around the peculiar characteristics of the South African business environment.

• **A pragmatic basis for management education**

In section 2 it was emphasised that in developing a South African curriculum for future management education, certain traditional management and functional courses should be retained. Of equal importance is the need to maintain a pragmatic approach in teaching core courses. Bramblett (1979:10) states that too much practical business information has been filtered out of management education over the years.

Current instructional processes for management education - particularly in distance teaching - are aimed at comprehension and recall. In view of the need for a real world curriculum these processes, particularly the evaluation process, should be aimed at also ascertaining proficiency in practical skills and practical knowledge. This approach obviously poses tremendous challenges to management educators.

• Continued education

Continued education is important in reducing the ability shortage. Life-long learning is a feature of modern management and is vitally important for the majority of South African managers and executives with a more traditional management education.

Since tertiary education systems are traditionally slow to adapt to demographic and economic changes, there will probably be a group in the management and executive category in the next decade with obsolete managerial knowledge and skills. This will undoubtedly create a demand for re-education and bridging education in management science on a non-formal basis (Simms & Noel 1984:61).

In summary it is inconceivable how academic planning, including the development of appropriate curricula, can be effective without the consideration of, the existing market needs for management education.

5.3 Cultural diversity in management education

Various authors have emphasised cultural differences related to a specific situation as an important determinant of curriculum design (see sections 2 and 5 above). It has also been intimated that curricula for management education in Southern Africa should be adapted to the identified and anticipated requirements related to the sub-continent, while retaining the necessary fundamental academic core requirements.

At the risk of coming to premature conclusions, this issue is preferably posed as the following question: How, and to what extent, should cultural factors be accommodated in the design of management education curricula in Southern Africa? Briefly, preliminary investigations seem to indicate that very little research has been undertaken in this area at the tertiary education level in Southern Africa and that no meaningful answer to this question can be given without extensive research.

Two observations seem to confirm the need for in-depth research specifically related to Southern Africa. Firstly culture is unique and apart from certain broad generalisations, it is extremely doubtful whether research findings related to cultural influences in other countries could ever be transferred and superimposed on the complex South African situation as a basis for curriculum development. Secondly, most of the research relating to Southern Africa has addressed the secondary educational level. Once again it would be unrealistic merely to extrapolate curricula from these findings, and moving in a linear fashion to the level of tertiary education. However, in full recognition of these limitations, these findings could possibly serve as perspectives which could then be either confirmed or refuted by appropriate research at the tertiary level, as a point of departure in developing relevant curricula for management education. In the context of school pupils in Zimbabwe, Bourdillon (1979: 11-20) identified two apparently opposite and contradictory trends which characterised traditional African thought and traditional Western thought respectively and argued that

"....if we are to derive principles for a curriculum which will enable the teacher to operate meaningfully at the interface of cultures, then that curriculum and the procedures by which it operates must be in tune with the deeper underlying thought-patterns which characterize the respective cultures"

One would have to acknowledge that Southern Africa has been increasingly exposed to rapid social change and a Western way of life, which might diminish the clear-cut dominance of any one set of cultural prerogatives. However, without substantiation through research, this might be pure conjecture.

The importance of culture in relation to this paper is that it constitutes an important environmental factor in a strategic approach to management education in general, and in developing appropriate curricula in particular. In a recent paper it was stated that

"Achieving effective in-company communication is a challenge to managers world-wide, even when the workforce is culturally fairly homogeneous. Increasingly, business communication skills are regarded as vital to managers, but when a variety of languages and cultural backgrounds occur within companies, effective two-way communication becomes even more difficult" (Prekel 1983:1)

It is our contention that aspects such as these should receive attention in selected management education curricula, rather than attempting (however well meant) to remedy the problem on the shopfloor.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this paper, alleged weaknesses in current management education were identified, specifically in relation to the possible long-term adverse effects of using inappropriate curricula in a specific educational situation, and of educators who are insensitive to the external 'market' for management education in a semi-developed country such as South Africa.

The feasibility of distance education as an alternative to full-time residential education has been confirmed both in practice and in theory beyond any doubt. However, it is recognised that there is still extensive scope for improvement.

In view of the current weaknesses in management education, and the tremendous pressure for greater academic efficiency and effectiveness, a strategic approach to management education is proposed in which all relevant factors which could impinge on the educational process should be considered systematically in relation to predetermined goals and objectives.

In closing, the demand for future management education was explored, and a present demand was indicated for appropriate management education in accordance with identified differential needs. This finding, unequivocally confirms the need for a strategic approach to management education in South Africa. In meeting this need, the University of South Africa has played a prominent role over many decades. The question is, can we effectively adapt our educational product to meet the challenges of the future?

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TEACHING ACCOUNTING BY TELETUITION

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1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this conference is to compile in a scientific way the vast body of knowledge and experience of Unisa personnel and others, accumulated over the years, on the subject of Distance Education and to make this available to present and potential users of this system of university education.

Consequently, this paper is the contribution of the Department of Accounting towards this wider objective by recording some of our experience over the years - some of the problems we have encountered and certain of the methods and procedures that have been developed, which not only aim at education and training as such, but which have been influenced by and are so designed to try and overcome, or at least ameliorate, certain of the ever-increasing problems encountered in distance education.

In order to provide some perspective, it is necessary to discuss briefly the background of the department itself as well as the subject of Accounting as such.

2. THE PLACE AND ROLE OF THE DEPARTMENT OF ACCOUNTING IN THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

2.1 GENERAL

The Department of Accounting forms part of the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences. The main bachelor degrees offered in this faculty are the BCom, BCompt and to a lesser extent the BAdmin degrees.

The BCompt degree is designed exclusively for the education of professional accountants (the Chartered Accountant) while the BCom and BAdmin degrees serve a much wider field, namely the provision of graduates to Commerce and Industry, the Teaching Profession and Local Government bodies. In the education of each of these groups the department plays a prominent role.

It is common knowledge that the BCom degree, and especially the BCom Accounting degree, is by far the most sought-after qualification in South Africa. I quote from The Transvaler of Wednesday, 10 December 1986:

A recent survey by the 'Bureau of Student guidance' at the Rand Afrikaans University amongst 48 large employment organisations shows that the strongest and almost insatiable demand is without any doubt that for the BCom Accounting graduate. [my own translation]

The reason for the popularity of these graduates, as was explained by a prominent company director, is the fact that they appear to understand and speak the language of the business world immediately.

In the provision of these graduates to the business sector Unisa plays a very important role and is without any doubt the largest single contributor in the Republic of South Africa towards the Accounting Profession in the broader sense. It produces almost one third of all professional accountants qualifying in the Republic each year, and although the precise figures are not known, gauged by the proportion of our student numbers to that of other Universities, it must be the largest supplier of the work force in those fields where a knowledge of figures counts.

Unisa also makes a contribution towards the international business world through the many foreign students who complete their studies with our university.

2.2 THE DEPARTMENT OF ACCOUNTING

The Department of Accounting is the largest of the three departments (the other two being Auditing and Applied Accountancy) involved in the education of accountants.

The following are important features of the Department:

a) Courses offered:

Undergraduate

Accounting I

Accounting II

Accounting III (for BCom-students)

a) Undergraduate courses offered (continued)

Accounting III (for BCompt students)

Accounting III (for BCom Local Government Accounting students)

Accounting IA (A Service course for Law students)

Accounting IB (A Transitional course for re-entrance into
University education)

Cost Accounting

Income Tax (for BCom and BCompt students)

Administration of Estates

Postgraduate (Honours)

History and theory of Accounting

The meaning, analysis, interpretation and design of financial
statements

Financial planning and control

Corporate reporting

Advanced taxation

Advanced cost and management accounting

Advanced local government accounting

b) Personnel (At present):

55 Academic

8 Administrative

c) Student numbers - net in June after cancellations:

(For the past three years)

	<u>Undergraduate</u>	<u>Post graduate (Hons)</u>
1984	21 459	138
1985	24 145 (12,5% growth)	315 (128% growth)
1986	26 528 (9,0% growth)	422 (34% growth)

Table A shows in greater detail the breakdown of students per
course for the 1986 academic year.

d) Assignments handled:

	<u>Undergraduate</u>	<u>Postgraduate (Hons)</u>
1984	56 840	687
1985	65 084 (14,5% growth)	1 325 (92,9% growth)
1986	69 594 (6,9% growth)	1 273 (4% decrease)

Table B shows in greater detail the breakdown of assignments handled per course for 1986.

e) Study material package for 1986:

		<u>Number</u>
Study guides:	Undergraduate	47
	Postgraduate	7
Tutorial letters:	Undergraduate	250
	Postgraduate	71
Examination papers:	Undergraduate	46
	Postgraduate	7

N.B.: The above figures should be doubled in all cases as a result of Unisa being a bilingual institution.

2.3 THE SUBJECT OF ACCOUNTING

Although the subject of Accounting and its related disciplines entail a substantial amount of academic study in order to grasp the principles and theory of the subject, the ultimate test of a student's knowledge lies in the application of the principles, the legal requirements and the guidelines and statements of the Accounting Profession.

Unlike many other descriptive subjects, Accounting, due to its nature, lends itself to fairly accurate evaluation and never leaves much doubt about what is right or wrong in any specific answer to an assignment.

Naturally this greatly facilitates marking. On the other hand, the nature of these subjects is such that drawing up assignments and examination papers, and the compiling of detailed suggested solutions is very time consuming and requires the utmost

concentration and accuracy in order not to make mistakes and confuse students.

3. THE MAJOR PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED IN DISTANCE TEACHING OF ACCOUNTING

Distance education as such presents many problems, some of which are common to all subjects while others are perhaps more specific to the subjects presented in the Department of Accounting. The most pertinent of these are:

- a) The lack of personal contact between lecturer and student.
- b) The vast and everincreasing student numbers and the resultant very unfavourable tutor/student ratio.
- c) Handling the enormous workload - especially marking of assignments and examination papers.
- d) The nature of the subject, the rapid and frequent changes in legal requirements relating to certain subjects and the constantly growing body of knowledge.
- e) The composition of our student body, a great proportion of which totally lack any previous exposure to a business environment.
- f) The alarmingly high dropout of students during the year resulting in low "throughput rates" (students passed in relation to students enrolled) at each year end. This phenomenon seems to have a positive correlation to the growth rate of students.
- g) The fairly long time lapse from the arrival of an assignment until it is marked and returned to the student.

For the purpose of the discussion that follows I will confine myself to the following main results arising from these problems.

These are:

1. From the student's point of view an obvious lack of proper planning of their studies and thus sub-optimal utilisation of the time at their disposal. The absence of the lecture situation, as compared with a residential university, where the student is guided through his studies according to a well-planned timetable in order to complete his studies in good time and leave enough time for revision, has led to a situation where students either

do not get through their work or do their studying in such a haphazard way that they easily fall behind and never make up the leeway.

2. From the lecturer's point of view, a tendency to continually increase the volume of study material as well as the standards set, without a real feeling for the student's ability to handle the burden.
3. The high dropout rate of students from the date of registration to examination admission - 30%, and of those admitted to the examination to those writing the examination a further 13%.
4. The handling of the enormous workload.

At this stage two very important features of the subject should be noted:

- a) The very definite positive correlation that exists between the quantity and quality of work done by way of completed assignments during the year and the success rate in the examination. This has been proved over the years. Table C illustrates this point in respect of the undergraduate students for the 1986 academic year.
- b) The time factor always plays a very important role in Accounting in the examination room. Students often fail their examination because of a lack of time rather than a lack of knowledge of the subject.

In order to improve this situation we decided several years ago to do the following:

- 1) Divide of our study material into so called study units.
- 2) Improve the quality of our examination papers, especially to ensure that students are not affected detrimentally by the time factor.
- 3) Motivating students to work harder.

4. THE STUDY UNIT PROGRAMME

4.1 GENERAL

The main feature of distance education and obviously the greatest shortcoming of the system is the absence of the "classroom" situation and the close guidance given to students by the lecturer concerned.

At about the beginning of this decade we decided that something had to be done to build some of this programmed learning into our system. Our study guides at that time were in the form of the well-known handbook with chapter after chapter and page after page full of study material. In addition to that there were the prescribed handbooks which were usually, in appearance, almost the same, more often than not repeating exactly the same material and exercises.

Students usually started work on all this, for them a monumental task, without any proper planning of their studies. This resulted in their either superficially skimming through the work, or a falling behind to such an extent that it was difficult to catch up, do their assignments on time and leave themselves ample time for revision and preparation for the examination.

The only way to try and improve this situation was to divide each complete course into smaller units - the study units - in such a way that each such study unit more or less resembled a class or lecture period at a residential university.

The main aim of this was to lead students into a sensible, well planned pattern of study in order to help them to progress step by step, leaving enough time in between for completion of their assignments as well as for revision for the examination.

4.2 BASIS

The general design of the study unit programme was based on the following phenomena which emerged over the years and was endorsed by a publication of the University's Student Service Bureau in 1983, entitled: **The Unisa Student - 1983.**

- a) The average student and especially the beginner student can hardly concentrate fully for much longer than 1 hour. After that the intensity of concentration deteriorates badly.
- b) Most Unisa students normally are fully employed and very often married, and so seldom have more than 15 hours study time available per week as a result of their other responsibilities. (Our planning has been based on 18 hours).
- c) In practice the average student seldom really starts studying seriously until the beginning of February. Despite the lengthened academic year this, I am afraid, is still the case, gauged by the present real beginning of the work flow.

4.3 TIME SCALE

We thus arrived at the time for actual study as follows:

	<u>Weeks</u>
1) Academic year stretches from the beginning of February to the middle of October (when the examination starts)	= 36
2) <u>Less</u>	
Time set aside for revision for the examination - beginning of September to Mid-October	= 6
Time available for study and assignments	<u><u>30</u></u>

Hours

We now assumed that on average students would not take more than 3 courses per academic year.

This gives:

1) Total study hours per week	18
2) Total study hours per course per week	6
3) Total study hours per course per year	
30 weeks x 6	180

Less Time set aside for compulsory assignments:

First year 7 x 4 hrs = 28

Second year 8 x 3½ hrs = 28

Final year 12 x 2½ hrs = 28

On average - say

∴ Real study time available

30

150

4.4 DURATION AND LENGTH OF EACH STUDY UNIT

It was then argued that the duration of each study unit should not exceed from 1 hour for first year students to 1½ hours for final year students and that the length of each study unit should range from four pages for first year students to six pages for final year students. This meant that the total study packet should range from about 600 pages at first year level to about 900 pages at final year level. These amounts have since had to be increased as a result of the growth of the body of knowledge and curricula in general.

4.5 THE STUDY PROGRAMME

As part of the first tutorial letter, every student, from the outset, receives a study programme which is so designed that if a student follows it he should have no problem in meeting certain due dates, leaving ample time for examination revision.

The attached table D is a typical example of such a study programme.

4.6 THE FORMAT OF A STUDY UNIT

Each study unit (or sometimes more than one added together to cover a certain topic) must contain at least the following:

The number(s) thereof

The topic to be covered

The main purpose of the study unit (what it aims to convey)

The contents of the study unit

One or more relevant exercises

In conclusion, self-testing questions

4.7 THE EFFECTS OF THIS EXERCISE

Concerning the effect of this exercise one has to approach it from two angles, namely the internal effect (from the lecturers' point of view) and the external effect (from the students point of view).

4.7.1 The internal effects

The application of this system, without any doubt, has had the following internal effects:

- a) It serves to control and limit the tendency of lecturers to become too verbose when writing lecture material. One has now to fit what one has to say into given outlines. This makes one think and rethink and leads to more concise and succinct phrasing which often results in greater clarity.
- b) The repetition of the same kind of exercise or even overlapping between study guides and prescribed works and consecutive courses has been cut to a minimum.
- c) All this obviously necessitates better planning which, in turn, leads to a better end product.

4.7.2 The external effects

- a) For the student this system naturally facilitates study in a systematic way according to a well-planned study programme. Shortly after the implementation of this system Prof F W Julyan of our department conducted a survey among third year students who had been exposed to the old as well as the new system. This was done by means of a postal questionnaire to which a final response of 61% was obtained. The results of this survey were published in Progressio, Vol 6, no 1, 1984. It showed that, in general, students reacted very positively to the new approach. Some of the more pertinent of the findings were:
 - i) The study programme leads to an earlier start with studies and stimulates systematic and regular study.
 - ii) The programme contributes towards better assignment and examination results.
 - iii) The programme leads to a more regular and timeous submission of assignments.
 - iv) A greater volume of work is dealt with in a relatively shorter period.
 - v) Students found that they were stimulated by the programme and found greater enjoyment in studying.

- b) A noticeable improvement was observed within the department in the average submission of assignments as well as in examination performance.

Over the period of the implementation of the programme (1980 to 1982) the "throughput" percentage has risen from 37,5% to 41%. At that stage it was still below that of the average of the faculty and University but has since grown and has more or less stabilised at 43 - 44%, which corresponds with that of the faculty.

We are convinced that the division of study material into smaller units not only serves a useful purpose from an educational point of view, but also contributes to a more sensible study pattern which enhances a students' chances of achieving his ultimate goal, that is passing his examinations and obtaining his degree.

This whole exercise once more bears out the validness of the saying: **Plan your work and work your plan!**

5. IMPROVEMENT OF EXAMINATION PAPERS

5.1 GENERAL

Unlike the more descriptive class of subjects, the volume of accounting study material is much more comprehensive. Questions on Accounting and its related subjects are also much longer and more difficult to comprehend; take longer to analyse; and have to be answered according to specific principles, legal requirements and guidelines. Answering these questions normally entails theoretical knowledge as well as the application of certain rules and legal requirements, and technique and speed play an important role in this exercise. If the compiler of an assignment or examination paper is not very cautious and very experienced it can easily happen that such an exercise becomes a speed test rather than a test of knowledge and proficiency. In order to avoid this possibility we

follow certain procedures especially with regard to our examination papers.

5.2 PROCEDURES REGARDING EXAMINATION PAPERS

Before being finalised, all the examination papers in our department go through a strict set of procedures. Each of these must be finalised by certain target dates in accordance with a well planned timetable, in order to allow sufficient time to submit these papers on due date for typing, proofreading, production and for distribution to all the examination centres locally and abroad.

These procedures are:

- a) The planning of the paper by the lecturer(s) concerned taking into account the coverage of the syllabus, the assignment contents during the year, the type of question to be set and the relative importance of certain sections of the curriculum.
- b) Discussion of the scheme with team leaders, co-examiners and the Head of the Department.
- c) The compilation of the paper in one language only (preferably in English) in accordance with the planned programme.
- d) Monitoring of the paper by "guinea pigs".
- e) Thorough scrutiny by the Associate Professor and second examiner (external and internal) of the paper, together with the report of the "guinea pigs".
- f) Final discussion with and approval of the papers by the Head of the Department.
- g) Final corrections to the papers and translation.

5.3 THE "GUINEA PIG" SYSTEM

Quite early in the academic year each examination paper in the department is assigned a "guinea pig" selected from the lecturers in the department who have had nothing to do with lecturing that specific course or compiling that examination paper.

At a specific pre-set date these "guinea pigs" write the papers under examination conditions.

Immediately after this, each person is expected to hand in a written report on:

- a) The time spent on each question and on the paper as a whole.
- b) Any vagueness or ambiguities in the paper that could lead to misinterpretations or confuse students.
- c) Any proposals he may have on how the paper could be improved.

This procedure has proved to be very valuable in evaluating the standard and length of papers.

It also serves to refresh and sharpen the knowledge of lecturers on sections of the work with which they do not have daily contact.

It further results in early corrections of possible shortcomings and mistakes in papers.

5.4 THE USE OF THE COMPUTER

As early as in 1978 we started making use of multiple-choice questions to be marked by the computer. This was employed in our assignments as well as in examination papers.

We had been of the opinion that this would speed up the feedback of assignments to students and should lead to an overall improvement in assignment as well as examination results. However we were proved wrong and we gradually phased this out because:

- a) This turned out to be a very impersonal way of marking an assignment because one has no opportunity of communicating with students by way of remarks or guidance on scripts.
- b) Because one had to wait until all response cards had been received before putting them through the computer in one batch, delayed the return of assignment results considerably.
- c) The marks obtained in assignments, but especially in the examination, decreased considerably as a result of the "sudden death" (full marks or nothing) phenomenon.

The main reason for this is that the nature of the subject is such that arriving at an answer in most cases requires a calculation. First, this requires much more time than a question which merely tests knowledge and, should a student make an arithmetical error or an error of principle, he obtains no marks even though part of his calculations or his approach to the question may have been perfectly correct.

We have also found that this type of question - especially in the examination - is normally left until last and then answered by mere guesswork. This also results in students who know very little about the subject gaining some marks through pure guessing.

We have now replaced this type of questions by short questions which are marked by hand and for which students are given marks for a correct approach and calculations although their ultimate answers may be wrong.

6. STUDENT MOTIVATION

6.1 GENERAL

The distance student is academically speaking a lonely person. He usually studies alone - normally at night or during weekends. He has very little direct contact with his lecturer, so that when he is confronted by a problem situation, he is not in a position to get an immediate answer and often has to work it out himself or wait for the next day's telephone call or even for days or weeks for a written reply.

That is why regular encouragement and motivation play such an important role in the whole process of distance education, especially in the case of the weaker type of student.

6.2 EXPERIMENT REGARDING MOTIVATION

The validity of this statement has been proved by Mrs U Gilliland of our department who, over the past 3 years (1984, 1985 and 1986), investigated the effect motivation has on student performance. What

makes her findings all the more significant is the fact that she has proved this by way of experiment with two groups of top class students.

For the past three years she has selected the top 200 students in Accounting I - according to their matric symbols - and divided them on a random basis into two equal groups of 100 students each. Group A has been given special attention throughout the year by way of constant contact and special motivation, while group B was treated like all other students and used as a control group only.

The annual work performance and examination results for these two groups were as follows:

A. Assignments submitted

In 1984 group A - 12% more than group B

In 1985 group A - 9% more than group B

In 1986 group A - 7% more than group B

B. Examination Results

	Group A			Group B			Group C*		
	1984	1985	1986	1984	1985	1986	1984	1985	1986
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
1) Enrolled	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
2) Admitted to Exam (2 : 1)	89	88	94	81	85	88	70	72	67
3) Written (3 : 2)	87	93	86	81	94	85	84	86	85
4) Passed (4 : 3)	81	95	91	77	90	87	67	67	65
5) Distinctions (5 : 4)	62	53	48	67	50	44	39	30	18
6) Throughput (4 : 1)	62	78	74	51	72	65	39	42	37

* Group C represents all students in Accounting I (ACT100-F)

Although, judged by the above figures, it can be said that in general group A performed better than group B, the most significant aspect of this exercise is to be found in the "throughput" figures. The end result of the more concentrated and personal attention to the group A students became clear. In 1984, 1985 and 1986 their performance was respectively 11%, 6% and 9% better than that of group B. Although the performance of both groups is much better than the course average, the ultimate dropout rate of both groups is still alarmingly high, taking into account the potential of these students.

When the examination results became available letters of congratulations were sent out to all students who obtained a distinction in Accounting I - in which they were also urged to register for Accounting II. The result was that in 1985 - 10% and in 1986 - 7% more of group A's students registered for Accounting II than those of group B.

If these tendencies are valid in respect of top students with great potential, one can draw a firm conclusion that motivation and personal attention would contribute towards greater success, especially amongst the average-to-weaker type of student.

6.3 HOW WE SET ABOUT MOTIVATING STUDENTS

Motivating people without personal contact is a very difficult task. Strictly speaking we have only one way by which to reach the student, namely the written word. For the past few years we have also made use of audio cassettes.

The basic objectives of our motivation are to show the student that we are interested in him as a person and that he is a living being and not merely a number. Furthermore, one must urge the student to continued and regular work. To achieve this we make use of the following:

6.3.1 Group visits

Once a year group visits are conducted at the major centres where the greatest concentration of students is found. All students are invited to attend these visits and put forward their problems and queries. The main aim of these visits is to meet and communicate with students both socially and academically. Group discussions are held, the topics ranging from administrative and personal student problems to course content and major academic problems. Normally, problem areas which are known to be common to most students and which cause problems in assignments and examinations are discussed and illustrated. These visits are followed up with a tutorial letter to all students, covering the type of problems and the solutions to them that have been discussed at the group visits.

6.3.2 External markers

One thing that has a very negative effect on a distance student is when he has to wait for long periods to get back the results of the assignments submitted by him. This is a serious problem as a result of the large number of students and the consequent large number of assignments that have to be handled.

In order to cope with this problem we make use of external markers to help speed up the whole process of completing and returning students' tasks.

These external markers are carefully selected and fully qualified people. They are expected to be thoroughly conversant with the specific course content in which they are employed. Their standard and way of marking and guidance to students are regularly controlled by senior lecturers in the course. These people deliver excellent work and play a major role in helping us cope with the heavy workload of marking assignments.

6.3.3 Keys to assignments

Approximately a week after the due date, all our students are supplied with a complete key and marking plan to each assignment. This is supplied to him whether he has submitted the assignment or not. This enables the student to evaluate his own effort against the required result. The marking plan shows him where he has gone wrong, what he should and should not have done, and the most important aspect of each question. This key also contains anticipatory comments based on the lecturers knowledge of the mistakes he expects students to make.

6.3.4 Answers to assignments

Each answer to an assignment is marked partly or in full. Clear indications are given as to what is right or wrong and marks awarded are shown clearly in order to leave the student in no doubt as to how the percentage he obtained has been calculated.

Comments on a student's work are vital. Guidance always has to be given in cases of a wrong approach or misinterpretation, with reference to the relevant sections of the study guide, prescribed book or legal provisions regarding that specific part of the work. Students are always encouraged and praised where praiseworthy work has been produced. **Negative remarks are never made on a student's script.**

6.3.5 Tutorial letters

Tutorial letters are our main source of communication. Apart from all other functions they serve, we use them to bring matters of common interest to the notice of students. Follow-up discussions of assignments and previous years' examination papers are among the aspects covered. The importance of regular work and submission of assignments are continually stressed. Table C mentioned earlier - illustrating the positive correlation between work done and examination success - is one of the documents that is brought to the attention of students every year by way of a tutorial letter.

This illustrates how his chances of success are improved with every additional assignment he completes.

6.3.6 Audio Cassettes

We have found that, as a result of the written word becoming monotonous, students often neglect to read tutorial letters or do not always really absorb the contents and the importance of them. Recently we have started supplementing these with audio tapes. These tapes are sometimes used to clarify problem areas in the subject matter, but their main function is to encourage and motivate students to persevere - to carry on in spite of frustration and dissatisfaction. We urge them not to give up but to come and write the examination in spite of the pessimism they may have about their chances of passing.

6.3.7 The Future

We are convinced that greater personal attention to students is of the utmost importance. Up to now we have hardly been able to handle the volume of work, let alone pay personal attention to individual students.

With the coming of our own departmental computers - which are years too late - every possible effort will be put into the task of developing programmes to facilitate earlier contact with students, either to warn them beforehand or to congratulate, stimulate and motivate them. Corrective steps could be taken sooner and praise be given where necessary.

With our vast and ever increasing student numbers and very poor lecturer/student ratio, more use should be made of the computer as an educational aid. This is a great challenge that lies ahead of us which we are all going to face in order to improve our educational process.

7. CONCLUSION

In spite of the shortcomings in the system of distance education, the role that UNISA will play in the South Africa of the future, cannot be over-emphasised. Our future lies in education, and there is no institution in the world more suited to providing this to the maximum number of people of different races, colours and creeds. The challenge is enormous and the possibilities endless. When changing technology is used to the best effect to bridge the communication "gap", there is no limit to what can be achieved.

TABLE A
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA
DEPARTMENT OF ACCOUNTING
EXAMINATION ADMITTANCE STATISTICS - 1986

1) Undergraduate

PAPER	Enrolled		Cancelled		Net		Refused		Admitted		% Admitted to net	
		1985		1985		1985		1985		1985		1985
ACT100-F	7 819	5 294	1 420	845	6 391	4 449	2 123	1 229	4 268	3 220	66,8	72,4
ACT100-S	1 012	2 432	310	554	702	1 878	290	740	404	1 138	57,5	60,6
ACT100-M	339	439	23	17	316	422	124	186	192	236	60,8	55,9
ACT201-K	3 201	2 694	276	218	2 925	2 476	655	594	2 270	1 882	77,6	76,1
ACT202-L	3 324	2 777	277	219	3 047	2 558	823	688	2 224	1 870	74,3	73,1
ACT301-M	1 750	1 666	207	183	1 543	1 483	434	389	1 109	1 094	71,9	74,0
ACT302-P	1 758	1 632	206	187	1 552	1 445	477	403	1 075	1 042	69,3	72,1
ACT303-Q	1 748	1 635	207	185	1 541	1 450	481	438	1 060	1 012	68,8	69,8
ACC301-C	393	395	44	30	349	365	86	74	261	289	74,0	79,1
ACC302-D	406	378	46	28	360	350	102	87	258	263	71,6	75,1
ACC303-E	437	430	46	28	391	402	127	5	264	277	67,5	68,9
ACL301-K	150	146	5	12	145	134	29	30	116	104	80,0	77,6
ACL302-L	147	144	6	12	141	132	26	27	115	105	81,6	79,6
ACL303-M	158	154	5	12	153	142	26	30	127	112	83,0	78,9
AES201-R	303	262	59	48	244	214	65	58	179	156	73,4	72,9
AES202-S	303	267	59	49	244	218	64	59	180	159	73,8	72,9
KBE201-E	311	253	56	29	255	224	77	45	178	179	69,8	79,9
KBE202-F	311	247	55	29	256	218	71	64	185	154	72,3	70,6
ITX201-P	672	707	62	61	610	646	156	140	454	506	74,4	78,3
ITX202-Q	717	757	62	62	655	695	206	175	449	520	68,5	74,8
TAX201-P	1 619	1 475	157	151	1 462	1 324	394	326	1 068	998	73,1	75,4
TAX202-Q	1 692	1 526	160	147	1 532	1 379	427	415	1 055	964	68,9	69,9
TAX203-R	1 899	1 694	185	153	1 714	1 541	466	429	1 248	1 112	72,8	72,2
1986	30 469	27 404	3 941	3 259	26 528	24 145	7 789	6 753	18 739	17 392	70,6	72,0
1985	27 404		3 259		24 145		6 753		17 392		72,0	
1984	23 974		2 518		21 459		5 964		15 447		72,0	
1983	24 584		3 146		21 438		5 927		15 551		72,4	

① 40% of these have submitted no assignments

TABLE A (continued)
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA
DEPARTMENT OF ACCOUNTING
EXAMINATION ADMITTANCE STATISTICS - 1986

2) Post graduate (Honours)

PAPER	Enrolled		Cancelled		Net		Refused		Admitted		% Admitted to net	
		1985		1985		1985		1985		1985		1985
HAC000-4	133	99	17	14	116	85	69	32	47	53	40,5	62,3
FST000-5	133	96	12	6	121	90	63	35	58	55	47,9	61,1
FPC000-A	103	78	11	13	92	65	44	33	48	32	52,2	49,2
CORACO-B	32	28	2	6	30	22	12	5	18	17	60,0	77,3
ACA000-P	38	30	2	5	36	25	14	4	22	21	61,1	84,0
ALGACC-Y	6	3	1	0	5	3	0	0	5	3	100,0	100,0
ADVTAX-6	24	26	2	1	22	25	6	7	16	18	72,7	72,0
	469	360	47	45	422	315	208 ^②	116	214	199	50,7	63,2
1985	360		45		315		116		199		63,2	
1984	145		1		138		34		104		75,4	
1983	155		4		151		18		133		88,1	

② 56% of these have submitted no assignments

3) Grand total

1986	30 938		3 988		26 950		7 997		18 953		70,3	
1985	27 764		3 304		24 460		6 869		17 591		71,9	
1984	24 119		2 519		21 597		5 998		15 551		72,0	
1983	24 739		3 150		21 589		5 945		15 684		72,6	

TABLE B
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA
DEPARTMENT OF ACCOUNTING
ASSIGNMENTS HANDLED - 1986

1) Undergraduate

PAPER	RECEIVED	MARKED	MARKED INTERNALLY	MARKED EXTERNALLY	WORKING STUDENTS	AVERAGE PER STUDENT	
						1986	1985
ACT100-F	24 538	24 524	22 327	2 197	6 237	3,9	4,4
ACA100-S	2 070	2 070	1 601	469	647	3,2	4,0
ACB100-W	1 367	1 367	1 367	-	255	5,4	5,6
ACT201-K	6 843	6 843	1 384	5 459	2 589	2,6	2,8
ACT202-L	6 619	6 616	3 198	3 418	2 695	2,5	2,8
ACT301-N	3 567	3 521	2 349	1 172	1 421	2,5	2,6
ACT302-P	3 258	3 166	1 946	1 220	1 264	2,6	2,6
ACT303-Q	3 115	2 849	1 879	970	1 245	2,5	2,5
ACC301-C	910	892	432	460	324	2,8	2,7
ACC302-D	811	806	300	506	305	2,6	2,9
ACC303-E	853	816	404	412	323	2,6	2,8
ACL301-K	386	386	386	-	132	2,9	2,9
ACL302-L	370	370	370	-	129	2,9	3,0
ACL303-M	394	394	394	-	141	2,8	3,0
AES201-R	558	558	558	-	206	2,7	2,8
AES202-S	566	566	566	-	197	2,9	2,9
KBE201-E	607	607	607	-	224	2,7	2,7
KBE202-F	562	562	562	-	218	2,6	2,8
ITX201-P	1 316	1 316	996	320	536	2,5	2,8
ITX202-Q	1 246	1 246	846	400	515	2,4	2,6
TAX201-P	3 026	3 026	1 939	1 087	1 249	2,4	2,7
TAX202-Q	2 858	2 858	1 553	1 305	1 204	2,4	2,6
TAX203-R	3 754	3 754	958	2 796	1 434	2,6	2,7
TOTAL 1986	69 594	69 113	46 922	22 191	23 491	3,0	3,2

1985	65 084	64 931	41 824	23 107	20 485	3,2
1984	56 840	56 358	34 339	22 019	18 625	3,0
1983	57 174	56 859	34 868	21 991	18 140	3,2

TABLE B (continued)
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA
DEPARTMENT OF ACCOUNTING
ASSIGNMENTS HANDLED - 1986

2) Post graduate (Honours)

PAPER	RECEIVED	MARKED	MARKED INTERNALLY	MARKED EXTERNALLY	WORKING STUDENTS	AVERAGE PER STUDENT	
						1986	1985
HAC000-4	342	342	342	-	81	4,2	5,1
FST000-5	421	415	415	-	90	4,7	5,8
FPC000-A	295	295	295	-	57	5,2	5,3
CORACO-8	107	107	107	-	25	4,3	4,9
ACA000-P	141	141	141	-	28	5,0	6,0
ALGACC-V	31	31	31	-	5	6,2	5,3
ADVTAX-6	91	91	91	-	19	4,8	4,9
Total 1986	1 428	1 422	1 422	-	305	4,7	5,4
1985	1 325	1 325	1 145	180	246	5,4	
1984	687	687	687	-	125	5,5	
1983	686	686	686	-	125	5,5	

3) Grand total

1986	71 022	70 535	48 344	22 191	23 796	3,0
1985	66 409	66 256	42 969	23 287	20 731	3,2
1984	57 527	57 045	35 026	22 019	18 750	3,1
1983	57 860	57 545	35 554	21 991	18 265	3,2

TABLE C
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA
DEPARTMENT OF ACCOUNTING

PERCENTAGES OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS PASSED WHO HAVE SUBMITTED THE FOLLOWING
ASSIGNMENTS - 1986

	2		3		4		5		6		7	
	1986	1985	1986	1985	1986	1985	1986	1985	1986	1985	1986	1985
ACT100-F	51	49	52	55	54	55	61	64	66	70	83	85
ACA100-S	56	27	63	51	64	48	42	55	64	68	72	78
ACB100-W	100	0	94	73	48	62	63	39	86	68	65	63
ACT201-K	57	62	72	56	97	82						
ACT202-L	43	67	66	57	83	72						
ACT301-N	27	49	74	73	57	64						
ACT302-P	48	46	54	52	61	59						
ACT303-Q	48	62	43	60	45	54						
ACC301-C	58	60	62	55	71	73						
ACC302-D	43	48	49	56	62	72						
ACC303-E	58	59	52	58	75	60						
ACL301-K	70	48	67	50	72	85						
ACL302-L	70	50	48	71	70	74						
ACL303-M	68	40	50	48	67	85						
AES201-R	55	81	61	83	88	89						
AES202-S	68	77	75	85	86	96						
KBE201-E	60	56	64	58	71	68						
KBE202-F	64	86	70	73	78	74						
ITX201-P	76	82	73	84	96	89						
ITX202-Q	73	83	77	82	83	92						
TAX201-P	81	80	81	85	95	97						
TAX202-Q	77	88	76	85	92	98						
TAX203-R	66	66	72	68	77	73						

TABLE D
STUDY UNIT PROGRAMME FOR 1987

DATE	STUDY MATERIAL AND ASSIGNMENT
14 Jan - 12 Feb	Guide 1 - Study units 1 to 12
13 and 14 Feb	ASSIGNMENT 1
15 Feb - 26 Feb	Guide 1 - Study units 12 to 24
27 and 28 Feb	ASSIGNMENT 2
2 Mar - 12 Mar	Guide 1 - Study units 25 to 34
13 and 14 Mar	ASSIGNMENT 3
16 Mar - 4 Apr	Guide 1 - Study units 35 to 55
6 en 7 Apr	ASSIGNMENT 4
8 Apr - 27 Apr	Revision of Guide 1
28 and 29 April	ASSIGNMENT 5
30 Apr - 11 May	Guide 2 - Study units 1 to 7
12 and 13 May	ASSIGNMENT 6
14 May - 21 May	Guide 2 - Study units 8 and 9
22 and 23 May	ASSIGNMENT 7
24 May - 18 Jun	Revision of Guide 2 and Study units 11 to 18
19 and 20 Jun	ASSIGNMENT 8
22 Jun - 18 Jul	Revision and Guide 2, Study units 19 to 27
20 and 21 Jul	ASSIGNMENT 9
22 Jul to 6 Aug	Revision
7 and 8 Aug	ASSIGNMENT 10
10 - 20 Aug	Revision
21 and 22 Aug	ASSIGNMENT 11
Aug, Sep & Oct	Revision

TEACHING AUDITING IN A DISTANCE EDUCATION ENVIRONMENT

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1. Introduction

The student, the lecturer and the study material are the basic elements of any teaching environment and the situation in which the teaching takes place, always remains an important factor which specifically influences the basic elements. The institution in which the interaction between student, lecturer and study material takes place is therefore of great importance. Attention will therefore, firstly, be paid to Auditing as a university course in general, and secondly, to the teaching of Auditing as a subject at the University of South Africa.

2. Auditing as a university course

Due to the fact that the development of Auditing as a university course exercises an important influence on the interaction between the basic elements in the teaching environment, this development will briefly be considered in an historical perspective.

The historical course of teaching Auditing at most South African Universities goes hand in hand with the historical development of the training of professional accountants and auditors in South Africa.

The basis for the training of accountants and auditors in South Africa was established by the creation at the turn of the century of the four provincial societies of chartered accountants.

These societies are:

- The Transvaal Society of Chartered Accountants, 1904
- The Cape Society of Chartered Accountants, 1907

- The Orange Free State Society of Chartered Accountants, 1908
- The Natal Society of Chartered Accountants, 1909.

Initially the four provincial societies set their own admission and training requirements. The Transvaal and Natal societies made the first important attempt to collaborate in the field of training in 1919 when they compiled the same examination papers (except for company law) for admission to membership of the societies. Two years later, in 1921, another important development took place, namely, the creation of the General Examining Board by the four provincial societies and the Rhodesian Society of Accountants. This collaboration provided uniform admission requirements and examination and articles of clerkship regulations.

Up to 1950, however, the four provinces still had different rules as regards academic education and the training of auditing clerks. During that period the academic training was undertaken by a variety of institutions, including technical colleges, correspondence colleges and universities. Important developments occurred in 1950, when members of the provincial societies and representatives of the universities agreed to co-ordinate the training of accountants and auditors. It was decided that the academic training for the qualifying examination, which would be conducted by the General Examining Board, would be undertaken by the universities. The contents of the courses had to comply with the requirements of the General Examining Board. Wolman (1976:176) correctly stated that this idea of co-operation was far-sighted, as other leading professional associations in the Western World only began adopting this practice during the sixties and seventies.

The next important milestone in the training of accountants and auditors took place in 1951 with the establishment of the Public Accountants' and Auditors' Board in terms of Act 51 of 1951. The general powers of the Public Accountants' and Auditors' Board are vested in Section 21 of the Act and include, *inter alia*, provisions concerning the training of accountants and auditors, service under articles of clerkship, the writing and conducting of examinations, the recognition of degrees, diplomas and other qualifications which exempt one from registration requirements laid down for accountants and auditors and the provision of

educational facilities. Act 51 of 1951 also contemplated that the Public Accountants' and Auditors' Board would take over the activities of the General Examination Board from the provincial societies. This take-over took place on 1 January, 1957 and since that date the Public Accountants' and Auditors' Board has been responsible for conducting the qualifying examination and for prescribing the syllabus which should be covered by the participating universities.

This co-operation between the universities and the Public Accountants' and Auditors' Board has, on the one hand, led to the acceptance of Auditing as a university course, and, on the other hand, has had an important influence on the teaching of auditing as such.

The Department of External studies was founded at the University of South Africa when the Higher Education Amendment Act (Act no 85 of 1946) was promulgated and the basis for distance teaching was thus established. Teaching functions commenced in 1947. Originally the subjects, Accounting and Auditing were presented by part-time lecturers. The first full-time lecturer to teach these subjects were appointed in October 1948. It can be said thus, that, as from 1949, the Department of Accounting and Auditing became autonomous in the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences.

As from 1948 Auditing as a subject was presented as a fully-fledged course for the B.Com degree. In that year 36 students were registered for Auditing I and 6 for Auditing II. Up to the end of 1961 both Accounting and Auditing were taught by one department, namely the Department of Accounting and Auditing. In 1962, this department was split into two separate entities, namely, the Department of Accounting and the Department of Auditing. At that stage there were 628 students already registered for the two courses, Auditing I and II and the Auditing department had three lecturing staff members.

As a result of the increase of study material prescribed for aspiring accountants and auditors, it became necessary in 1964 for the Auditing Department to incorporate an additional course in Auditing, namely Auditing III, for the final year B Com (CTA certificate in the theory of ac-

counting) students. Up to the end of 1972, this course was presented by the Auditing Department. From 1973, however, the Auditing Department presented the two undergraduate courses, i.e. Auditing I and II and Auditing at Honours level has been presented by the Department of Applied Accountancy. By the end of 1972 there were 7 lecturers employed in the Auditing Department and the student figures were as follows:

Auditing I - 636

Auditing II - 349

Auditing III - 195

During the following ten years the Auditing Department expanded in proportion with the university as a whole and in 1982 student numbers totalled 1253 and 1084 for Auditing I and Auditing II respectively. During the same period the lecturing staff only increased from 2 to 9. At the end of last year the students for Auditing I paper AUD201 totalled 1470 and for paper AUD202: 1522. The totals for the three Auditing II papers were paper AUD301: 1087, paper AUD302: 1068 and paper AUD303: 1133 and the lecturing staff had increased to 16 permanent and 2 temporary lecturers. At the beginning of 1987 an additional 2 staff members assumed duty which brings the total number of lecturers to 20.

Post-graduate training began in 1961. During the years that followed student figures fluctuated but remained on a low level. There are two reasons for this, firstly, the majority of students are interested in the professional qualification of Chartered Accountant (SA), and, secondly, the training in this professional direction is undertaken by the department of Applied Accountancy on honours level. On the other hand, the Auditing Department offers an honours, masters and doctors degree each of which has a broad theoretical basis.

3. The student

According to student registrations for Auditing I and Auditing II for the 1986 academic year, which are illustrated in Table 1, approximately 63% of the students took Auditing I for the B Compt degree;

approximately 10% registered for non-degree purposes and 27% for the B Com and B Admin degrees. As far as Auditing II is concerned approximately 66% of the students registered for the B Compt degree; 31% registered for non-degree purposes and 3% registered for the B Com and B Admin degrees. As most students that register for Auditing for non-degree purposes, usually register with the intention of being admitted to do Honours B Compt/CTA, the percentage of students that register for non-degree purposes can be added to the number of B Compt students. The percentage students that enrol for Auditing I and Auditing II, thus, with the intention of obtaining either B Compt or B Compt status, is respectively 72% and 97%. In view of the fact that the B Compt degree is aimed at training professional accountants and auditors, it can be assumed, with reference to the above-mentioned statistics, that the majority of auditing students usually intend to qualify as public accountants and auditors.

From this assumption it follows that the number and quality of auditing students is to a large extent determined by the number and quality of those recruited by the public accountants' and auditors' profession. The Commission of Enquiry into developments in the Accounting profession in South Africa (1980: 139-140) actually stipulates in its report that the accounting profession is experiencing difficulty in finding and retaining enough recruits of the required quality.

The reasons for this are:

- The public accountants' and auditors' profession has a stable but monotonous professional image. This fact is attributed specifically to the way in which Accounting is taught at certain schools.
- To date career guidance has played a minor role in recruiting potential accountants and auditors. In spite of the Public Accountants' and Auditors' Board setting minimum requirements for the admission of potential accountants and auditors, there are no pre-determined requirements for aptitude.

This results in students starting their articles at a public accountants and auditors firm and even being admitted to these studies without them being suitable for this career.

- Students criticise the academic education provided, the standard and ability of lecturers, the syllabus, the practical value thereof, the examinations and assignments, the relevance of the training for the qualifying examination and the inclusion of irrelevant courses in their training.
- In spite of students being generally satisfied with on-the-job-training, many are not satisfied with the formal education and office lectures given by the accounting and auditing firms where they are employed.
- Articled clerks at public accountant's and auditor's firms are generally unhappy with the salaries they receive. Remuneration thus plays an insignificant role in attracting people to the profession.

In view of the fact that students first obtain articles of clerkship and then enrol at universities, it is clear that universities have little, if any, say in the pre-selection of potential accountants and auditors and by implication thus their own students.

In the Republic of South Africa with its different peoples, differences exist between the cultural, economic and educational development of the various race groups. To illustrate the implication of this in the teaching of Auditing, the student applications for the Auditing I and Auditing II course from 1971 to 1986 are analysed in table II on the basis of race. From this table it appears that during the fifteen years 1971 to 1986 white students who took Auditing I and Auditing II decreased as a percentage of the total number of students by 25% and 23% respectively. The other race groups therefore rose by the same percentage for this period. The increase was mainly attributable to black and Asian students. Black students increased by 11% and 9% for Auditing I and Auditing II respectively. In the case of Asian students the increase in Auditing I and Auditing II was 13% and 11% respectively. In the future, when formulating an educational strategy in the department, this situation should continually be kept in mind.

Later in this address the duality of the training of accountants and auditors will be illustrated, namely the academic training at a university and the practical experience gained at a public accountant's and auditor's firm. Regarding the latter it is unfortunate that the quality of practical training can differ substantially from firm to firm as a result of factors such as the size of the firm, the size and variety of audit assignments, the international and other connections and the office training programmes presented by the firm. Public accounting and auditing firms in urban areas are, as a result of the presence of the above-mentioned factors usually, but not necessarily, better able to provide practical training of a higher standard for their registered clerks. To determine the possible influence of this, the geographical distribution of students is given in Table 3. In spite of the division of students between urban and rural areas being arbitrary to a certain extent, it nevertheless gives a reasonable picture of student distribution. According to Table 3, 72% of the auditing students are situated in the urban areas, approximately 10% in the rural areas, 6% in the independent and national states and in South West Africa/Namibia, 6% in the rest of Africa and less than 1% live abroad. More than 600 of the approximately 1 500 students that take Auditing I live in the PWV (Pretoria, Witwatersrand, Vereeniging) area. For Auditing II this figure is almost 500 out of 1 100. As a matter of interest it is noted that students in urban areas who usually reside close enough to a residential university still choose to study at the University of South Africa.

In Table 4 a comparison is drawn between the percentage pass-rate of Under-Graduate Auditing Students and that of Under-Graduate Students in the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences as well as with that of Under-Graduate Students at the University as a whole. According to this information the rate of success in the Department of Auditing is considerably greater than that of both the Faculty and the University. Although a variety of reasons for this situation can be supplied, the following are deemed to be the most important:

- The Department of Auditing does not offer subjects at first-year level. Auditing I and II are second and third-year level subjects respectively.

- Due to the fact that employers share the responsibility for the training of clerks, a matter which we will later consider, they thus have a direct interest in the progress of their employees, and can consequently be expected to be more sympathetic and encouraging towards their employees' studies than is the case in many other instances.
- As a result of the fact that prospective accountants and audit clerks are professionally orientated and that their studies are directly connected to the nature and content of their type of employment, a positive attitude towards their studies is usually encountered in Auditing students. The general success of professionally orientated studies may be directly linked to students' ultimate success in their chosen professions. It serves thus as an additional motivator. The direct supplementation and association of knowledge which results from their working environment plays an important role in the level of success of Auditing students.

In conclusion let it be said that to a large extent students that take Auditing come from a homogeneous working environment. These students are also less isolated from their associates than other students in other disciplines and they are usually employed by an employer, who has not only undergone the same training as them but is statutorily obliged to contribute to their training.

4. The Lecturer

Attention will now be paid to the lecturer and particularly the lecturer in Auditing as one of the basic elements of the training environment. A lecturer in Accounting subjects must, according to the Committee on Teacher Development of the American Accounting Association, have the following qualities: "The person should have had some practical experience; hold a Ph.D. degree and a C.P.A. certificate; be tolerant, patient, cooperative, industrious, conscientious, dignified, attractive in appearance and dress; possess a good personality and a keen sense of humor; be excellent in research and writing; be self-confident, poised, and inspiring to students; be a gifted speaker; be free of annoying mannerisms; prepare adequately for each class meeting;

organize the course well; be able to develop thinking and judgement on the part of students; make assignments clear and definite; stress significant concepts and disregard trivial details; develop a feeling of harmony in the class; be punctual in starting and ending classes; proctor examinations to eliminate cheating and be fair in grading; be able to understand students; and be able to control his class at all times."

Despite the fact that this committee was very idealistic and possibly exaggerated somewhat when formulating the above qualities it nevertheless gives an indication of the high standard that is required of lecturers in general and lecturers in accounting subjects in particular. The lecturer in Auditing and in the other accounting subjects finds himself in a unique position due to the fact that he plays a role in both the accounting and auditing as well as the educational professions. He therefore, fulfills a dual role, but is usually only professionally qualified in one of the professions.

Penz (in American Accounting Association, 1968: 3) also points out that the lecturer in accounting subjects is simultaneously a member of both professions and Penz maintains further that this dual role can sometimes be confusing to the new lecturer. Kritzing (in Proloog, 1974: 343) points out that the lecturing of accounting subjects is not only a question of subject knowledge. The lecturer, must, after having obtained this subject knowledge, master the second profession - he must learn how to teach.

The Van Wyk de Vries Commission makes it clear that formal academic qualifications are the most important consideration when it comes to appointing and promoting university staff, and must remain so (1974: 27). The commission is of the opinion, however, that insufficient consideration is being given to lecturers' abilities to motivate students and their ability to convey their knowledge (1974: 274).

The Commission of Enquiry into Developments in the Accounting Profession in South Africa has found that approximately 80% of the lecturers of accounting subjects at South African universities are qualified CA's. 24% of these have Bachelors degree, 19% an honours degree, 35% a

masters degree and 13% a doctorate as their highest academic qualification. Approximately 9% of these lecturers possess no academic qualifications. Only 13% of these lecturers possess a qualification in education.

Table 5 provides information concerning the staff in the Auditing Department at the University of South Africa. From this it is obvious that the lecturers in the Department of Auditing compare favourably with their colleagues at other South African Universities. Of the present staff, 60% are in possession of the professional qualification CA(SA), 5% have a bachelors degree, 60% an honours degree, 20% a masters degree, 15% a doctorate as their highest academic qualification and 5% have a qualification in education. We can thus assume from the above that specialised subject knowledge is an important criterion when it comes to the appointment and promotion of lecturers. The policy in the Department of Auditing is that persons in the particular ranks mentioned below must preferably satisfy the following requirements:

Professorship:	The CA(SA) qualification, a doctorate and appropriate experience.
Associate professorship:	The CA(SA) qualification, a masters degree and appropriate experience.
Senior lecturer:	The CA(SA) qualification, an honours degree and appropriate experience.
Lecturer:	An honours degree with the prospect of obtaining the CA(SA) qualification together with the completion of articles of clerkship.
Junior lecturer:	A bachelor degree and completion of articles of clerkship.

Despite the fact that obtaining higher degrees in a specialised field is emphasized and encouraged, this should not take place at the cost of the broad, general formative and educational development of the lecturers. At least three years lecturing experience or three years practical experience or other similar experience after obtaining the CA(SA) qualification is considered appropriate experience.

The Committee on Auditing Education of the American Accounting Association (1972: 6) is of the opinion that an auditing lecturer must be a researcher with enough practical experience to enable him to cope with major auditing problems. The Committee on Auditing of this Association also points out that as a result of new developments in the profession (1974: 172), practical experience acquired previously will become outdated with time. It is therefore imperative that Auditing lecturers must not only have sufficient experience on appointment but that they keep up with new developments in practice. The Committee on Auditing believes that a lecturer can gain the best practical experience when he actively participates in the auditing process and auditing procedures. The methods which enable the auditor to update his practical experience were listed by this committee in order of preference as follows:

A participatory long term engagement, a participatory short term engagement and a long term engagement in an acting capacity in the office of a practicing accountant and auditor.

Interaction between the auditing lecturers in the Department of Auditing and members of the profession takes place continuously on various levels and in a variety of capacities and is very much encouraged.

To conclude: it is important to note that University departments that recruit teaching staff from professional ranks, find it difficult within the prescribed fixed salary structure of the university to attract professionally qualified staff in sufficient numbers.

The Department of Auditing can only appoint professionally qualified staff, or at least, staff that have the potential to qualify professionally in the future. In the context of personnel structures this means that a lectureship merely represents a stage in a staff member's academic development and that all posts on this level should at least have the prospect of promotion to senior lecturer, even if this is contrary to the broad guidelines laid down for the structure of university posts.

5. The study material

The training and teaching for the qualifying examination of the Public Accountants' and Auditors' Board is provided by the participating universities in terms of rule 6(1) of the Rules for the Qualifying Examination (1985: 4-6). This rule also states, *inter alia*, that no one may register for the Qualifying Examination unless he submits one of the participating university's certificates to the Public Accountants' and Auditors' Board. The University of South Africa, being one of the participating universities, also provides training for admission to the Qualifying Examination of the Public Accountants' and Auditors' Board. The University of South Africa must therefore, in the teaching of the various subjects, follow the prescribed syllabi of the Public Accountants' and Auditors' Board. Rather than discuss the contents of the Auditing syllabus, the general approach to training and the desired objectives will be highlighted. Attention will also be drawn to the method of teaching Auditing at the University of South Africa.

Firstly the duality of the training of accountants and auditors should be emphasized. Section 23 of the Public Accountants' and Auditors' Act Nr 51 of 1951 stipulates that for a person to qualify as a professional accountant and auditor, he must pass the prescribed examination of the Public Accountants' and Auditors' Board and must have served the required period of articles at a public accountants and auditors firm. The training of professional accountants and auditors consists of two elements, namely:

- academic training at one of the participating universities;
- practical experience at a public accountant's and auditor's firm.

The Department of Auditing believes that academic training in so far as the teaching of the fundamental principles and theory of the subject is concerned, it should be dealt with at the University. This is what Ziegler (1972: 168) defines as "that of learning the *how* and the *why*". On the other hand, the aim of practical experience should be to emphasize auditing methods and procedures and to develop and round off all facets of practical professionalism. Ziegler (1972: 168) refers to this as "the acquiring of practice in performing certain functions".

The Committee on Auditing (1974: 158) of the American Accounting Association states that the more general and semi-technical knowledge should be acquired by the process of formal tuition and the more technical knowledge by the training programmes of accountant's and auditor's firms and on-the-job-training. The Committee on Auditing Education (1973: 3) of the above-mentioned Association is also of the opinion that theory should be emphasized in the formal training of auditing. The Committee states that a student cannot be taught to become an auditor. This is so because in his training a student deals with many different factual situations and has to apply the principles in these different situations.

Furthermore, the committee states that the University can teach a student a great deal about Auditing and provide him with a useful framework which he can apply in the practical phase of his development.

When compiling and developing the Auditing course the University must therefore take account of the fact that a student will acquire a substantial amount of his auditing knowledge from training programmes at accounting and auditing firms and from on-the-job-training.

In respect of the role of the University in the training of accountants and auditors, the Commission of Enquiry into the Development of the Accounting Profession (1980: 138) states that "the role of the University is to 'educate', not to 'train', in techniques", and adds further that the training at universities for the accounting profession is justified by the fact that the training of accountants and auditors requires a broad spectrum of academic knowledge.

The Department of Auditing is therefore of the opinion that when teaching auditing, the emphasis should firstly be placed on the fundamental theory and principles of auditing and that auditing procedures and practice should only be included in so far as they illustrate the application of the theory in practice. Auditing, when taught in this way, enjoys the right to exist as a fully-fledged subject at university level. If the emphasis were only on auditing procedures, practices and methods then auditing would have no right of existence as a subject at university level. In this case one could then agree with

those that believe that auditing cannot be taught at university but can only be mastered by practical experience, or that auditing is so technical it ought rather to be taught at technicons instead of universities.

At the University of South Africa the training of accountants and auditors takes place on an inter-departmental basis. The undergraduate training in Auditing and Accounting takes place in the Departments of Auditing and Accounting respectively. The Department of Applied Accounting on the other hand provides for post-graduate studies which form part of a students professional training. Furthermore, the Department of Accounting and the Department of Auditing present an advanced theoretical post-graduate programme.

The subject matter for auditing on undergraduate level is divided into 2 courses, namely Auditing I and Auditing II. Auditing I is presented on second year level and Auditing II on a third year level. Auditing is a compulsory major subject for the B Compt degree; and an optional major subject for the B Admin degree. For the B Com degree a student may not offer Accounting and Auditing as a combination of major subjects. This combination may be taken for the B Com degree only together with a third major subject.

The study material in the Auditing I course is divided into 2 papers. Paper I deals mainly with the basic principles of auditing and an introduction to the role played by internal control in the carrying out of an audit assignment. Paper 2 deals mainly with auditing procedures and considerations. The study material for the Auditing II course is divided into 3 papers: Paper I, which deals with the general auditing procedures and basic considerations when conducting an audit assignment; Paper 2, which deals with the legal and professional considerations concerning the carrying out of an audit and Paper 3, which deals with public practice and exceptional audit techniques. Apart from the 2 undergraduate courses, the Department of Auditing presents 5 papers for the Honours degree, a masters degree and a doctorate.

As is the case at other departments at the University of South Africa, Auditing is taught mainly through the medium of the written word. In addition to a study guide, a prescribed textbook and other publications

in each of the papers in the undergraduate courses, the students are also provided with a series of assignments which must be completed and handed in for correction. The aim of these assignments is three-fold, namely -

- Firstly, it disciplines students to abide by the departmental study programme.
- Secondly, problem areas in the subject matter can be identified.
- Thirdly, it serves as a mechanism of selection because the admission of students to the examinations depends on the number of assignments handed in for correction and the marks achieved in these assignments.

In addition to the individual comments made when marking the assignments, the general shortcomings of students are also brought to their attention by means of tutorial letters sent to all students. Furthermore, after the due date of the relevant assignments the suggested solutions to the assignments are immediately sent to the student by way of tutorial letters. Tutorial letters are also used to provide students with feedback and to inform them of important information regarding the study material.

In spite of the written word being the most important medium in distance teaching of Auditing, the Department of Auditing also makes use of other media. By means of cassette recordings which are issued to students on registration, it is attempted to familiarise students with the subject of Auditing, the Department of Auditing itself and specifically the lecturers. The cassette recordings also emphasize the important information contained in the tutorial letters and study guides and try to encourage and motivate the students to continue their studies in a consistent and conscientious fashion. Personal contact is accomplished by means of group visits to the main urban centres, where attention is devoted mainly to problem areas in the syllabus. Students are encouraged to make appointments with lecturers when they have problems so that these can be discussed and solved. A considerable amount of personal contact is accomplished in this way.

The Department of Auditing continually devotes attention to the improvement of both the content and the method of teaching of Auditing. At present, a thorough investigation is being conducted concerning the use of micro- and personal computers in the teaching of the subject. The greater availability of computer facilities, either by way of personal possession and/or access to the computer makes the possible utilisation of the computer as an educational aid very promising.

6. Conclusion

Although there are similarities between the teaching of Auditing and the teaching of other subjects at the University of South Africa and similarities with the teaching of Auditing at other South African and foreign Universities, the University of South Africa's teaching situation nevertheless remains autogenous to a large extent. Firstly, auditing can be distinguished from other subjects, excepting accounting subjects, because of the involvement of an independent body, namely, the Public Accountants' and Auditors' Board. The Board is involved to quite an extent in the compilation of the syllabus for the course and eventually determines, by means of the Qualifying Examination, whether or not students have the required knowledge for admission to the public accountants' and auditors' profession. Secondly, the unique method of education, namely distance education, which the University of South Africa is committed to, further distinguishes the teaching of Auditing at this University from that at other universities.

In this address the interaction between the student, the lecturer and the study material in the Department of Auditing at the University of South Africa was illustrated. The characteristics of the auditing student, and particularly the auditing student at the University of South Africa were investigated and it was concluded that the auditing student at the University of South Africa has specific characteristics which distinguish him from other students at the same university and also from auditing students at other universities.

The requirements to be fulfilled by lecturers in Auditing were also reviewed. An analysis was made of the academic and professional

qualifications of the present staff of the Department of Auditing at the University of South Africa and this was compared with those of lecturers at other South African Universities. It was pointed out that the lecturers in the Auditing Department compared favourably with their colleagues at other South African Universities, when it comes to academic and professional qualifications.

The contents of the auditing syllabus were not discussed, but were merely accepted as a given fact, because to a great extent, the Public Accountants' and Auditors' Board prescribes the syllabus. In this discussion emphasis was placed on the approach to teaching and the methods of teaching. The opinion of the Department of Auditing that formal education should concentrate on the theory and fundamental principles of Auditing rather than the audit procedure and methods, was emphasized. In conclusion it was shown how Auditing is presented in a distance education environment and it was also noted that although other educational media are used and examined, the written word still remains the most important teaching medium.

1987 marks the twenty-fifth year of the existence of the Department of Auditing as an independent department at the University of South Africa. After 25 years it can be said that the department is firmly established and the basis has been laid to confront successfully any further challenges which may arise.

TABLE 1
DEPARTMENT OF AUDITING
STUDENT REGISTRATION FOR AUDITING PAPERS SUB-DIVIDED ACCORDING TO
DEGREES
ACADEMIC YEAR - 1986

Paper code	B Admin		B Com		B Compt		NDP		Total
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
AUD201	12	,8	389	26,5	925	62,9	144	9,8	1 470
AUD202	13	,9	410	29,9	956	62,8	143	9,4	1 522
AUDITING I*	13	,9	400	26,7	940	62,8	143	9,6	1 496
AUD301	2	,2	28	2,6	718	66,0	339	31,2	1 087
AUD302	2	,2	29	2,7	698	65,4	339	31,7	1 068
AUD303	2	,2	33	2,9	757	66,8	341	30,1	1 133
AUDITING II*	2	,2	30	2,7	724	66,1	340	31,0	1 096

* Average for papers

TABLE 2
DEPARTMENT OF AUDITING
STUDENT REGISTRATION FOR THE AUDITING COURSE SUB-DIVIDED ACCORDING TO RACE
1971 - 1986

Course	Race	1971		1976		1981		1986		1971 - 86	
		Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Increase	Change in %
Auditing I	White	508	90,2	870	80,9	850	75,2	966	64,6	458	-25,6
	Coloureds	18	3,2	41	3,9	28	2,5	53	3,5	35	+ ,3
	Black	5	,9	25	2,3	89	7,9	180	12,1	175	+11,2
	Asian	32	5,7	124	11,5	156	13,8	283	18,9	251	+13,2
	Chinese	**	**	15	1,4	7	,6	14	,9	14	+ ,9
	Total	563	100,0	1 075	100,0	1 130	100,0	1 496	100,0	933	
Auditing II	White	384	92,8	335	76,3	663	75,2	765	69,8	381	-23,0
	Coloureds	6	1,4	13	3,0	19	2,4	37	3,4	31	+ 2,0
	Black	1	,2	13	3,0	30	3,9	104	9,5	103	+ 9,3
	Asian	23	5,6	75	17,1	83	10,7	179	16,3	156	+10,7
	Chinese	**	**	3	,6	13	1,6	11	1,0	11	+ 1,0
	Total	414	100,0	439	100,0	778	100,0	1 096	100,0	682	

* Average of papers see Table I

** Not available

TABLE 3
DEPARTMENT OF AUDITING
GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS
ACADEMIC YEAR - 1986

Paper Code	Republic of South Africa												Independent & National states &		Other African states		Foreign coun- tries		Total
	SWA																		
	Cape Province		Natal		Transvaal		OFS		Total		%								
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	%	Urban	%	Urban	%	Total
AUD201	148	60	261	71	608	96	35	22	1052	249	71,6	16,9	85	5,8	79	5,4	5	,3	1470
AUD202	154	63	264	71	637	107	36	24	1091	265	71,7	17,4	90	5,9	71	4,7	5	,3	1522
AUD301	101	53	192	21	478	69	19	21	790	164	72,7	15,1	64	5,9	63	5,8	6	,5	1087
AUD302	100	54	193	21	461	68	19	21	773	164	72,4	15,4	61	5,7	64	6,0	6	,5	1068
AUD303	106	56	196	24	494	74	19	21	815	175	71,9	15,5	67	5,9	69	6,1	7	,6	1133

TABLE 4
DEPARTMENT OF AUDITING
PASS PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS 1974 - 1986*

CATEGORY	**					***							
	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986
Under graduate: Department	31.6	39.7	38.1	42.8	48.3	47.8	52.9	50.2	55.5	58.7	60.1	57.1	44.2
Under graduate: Faculty	27.8	28.5	30.4	32.6	33.8	40.6	40.4	40.5	45.3	49.0	50.5	47.6	44.2
Under graduate: University	30.7	31.1	32.3	34.3	36.5	40.4	41.6	43.5	44.3	46.7	47.8	44.8	44.0

* 1974 - 1984 Supplementary examinations included

1985 - 1986 Supplementary examinations excluded

** 1974 - 1982 Per course

*** 1983 - 1986 Per examination paper

TABLE 5
DEPARTMENT OF AUDITING
POSTS STRUCTURE AND PERSONNEL DETAILS 1986/87

Rank*	Posts		Profes- sional qualifi- cation	Number	%	Highest academic qualification**								Educa- tional qualifi- cation	Teaching experience	
	Ap- proved	Appoin- ted				D		M		H		B			Years	Ave- rage
						G	%	G	%	G	%	G	%			
P	4	4	4	100	3	75	1	25					1	77	19,2	
A	2	1	1	100			1	100						14	14,0	
S	13	5	5	100			1	20	3	60	1	20		10	2,0	
L	4	***8	2	25			1	13	7	87				22	2,7	
J(T)	3	***2								2	100			2	1,0	
Total	26	20	12	60	3	15	4	20	12	60	1	5	1	125	6,2	

* P = Professor; A = Associate professor; S = Senior lecturer;
 L = Lecturer; J(T) = Junior lecturer (temporary).

** D = Doctorate; M = Masters degree; H = Honours degree;
 B = Bachelors degree.

*** 6 Senior lectureships are utilised against lower ranks
 viz 4 lectureships & 2 junior lectureships.

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There has been, and probably always will be, a dichotomy in the attitudes towards the study and hence the teaching of law. Let me illustrate this with a very brief example: hardly anybody is likely to study medicine or accounting for any purpose other than the professional use of the knowledge thus acquired. Yet it is not strange, even in this day and age, to find, besides all those studying law with a view to a legal career, others studying law as part of a so-called liberal education or at least with a different career such as that of a diplomat or of a politician in mind and thus without any intention of using his legal knowledge directly. This conference is not the place to go into the reasons for this; suffice it to point to a few obvious factors such as the important role played by law as part of the social culture of a community, and the way of thinking and reasoning imparted by the study of law and capable of being used for a multitude of purposes.

It is, however, important to take a look at our history for a better understanding of the origin of these different attitudes, of their nature and of the possible future trends in this regard.

It is trite knowledge that our law, and therefore also the study and teaching of our law, goes back to two historical roots, the Roman and the English. In Roman times already, while no formal training of jurists existed, those teaching their disciples the intricacies of the law saw their teaching as part of a wider inter-disciplinary training encompassing philosophia and (especially) rhetorica. Even then, this background was highly favoured by those with political ambitions; Cicero is an example that springs to mind. When the formal training of jurist was started in the law schools of Berytos and Constantinople, no doubt this tradition was maintained and it is not surprising that the great emperor, Justinian, in the 6th Century A.D., made law reform and especially the codification of the law such an important part of his political and social programme. He is the one, then, who at least provided the tool for a subsequent European legal tradition in the form of his famous *Corpus Iuris Civilis*.

When after the virtual oblivion of the dark ages the first flickerings of a

new thirst for knowledge re-emerged in the 12th Century A.D., one of the highlights of this early renaissance was the rediscovery of the Corpus Iuris at the famous law school of Bologna. Here began the task of not only studying and explaining this code of law as a piece of Roman antiquity but also of adapting it to the needs of the times - in itself then already a dual approach to the study of law and its teaching. This adaptation was carried much further by the Commentators of the 14th and 15th centuries who, especially after the invention of the printing press, prepared the way for the sweeping reception of Roman law throughout Western Europe. Like their predecessors the Glossators, these Post Glossators as they are sometimes called, still followed the scholastic method in their unquestioning dissection of the Roman sources. The first serious dichotomy arose with the rise of the Humanist school in the 16th Century A.D. Since the main thrust of this movement originated in France, their new method was called the mos Gallicus in contradiction to the mos Italicus of their predecessors. In the true style of the Renaissance, the Humanists urged a re-examination of the Roman texts as part of the classical Roman heritage, a purely historical research therefore, scorning the adaptations by the commentators and even the interpolations inscribed by the compilers of the Corpus Iuris as falsifications of the texts. No wonder then that they called themselves the elegant school and had nothing but contempt for the method and the style of the commentators whom they described as verbosi in re vacili, in difficili muti, in angusta diffusi - verbose on easy matters, silent on difficult ones and copious in their hairsplitting. Here then we find two opposing approaches: a practical one attempting to explain the law as it was found and making it understandable for use in practice, and a purely historical one with no concern for the practical uses of the law or indeed for the law as applied by the practitioners. The result was predictable: an almost complete divorce between a purely academic study of an idealised Roman law by a few learned professors, and the practical study of Roman law adapted to the customary rules existing in practice. This dichotomy continued to exist throughout the next two centuries with the humanists ranged against what one might call the positivists, although some of the better-known jurists in the various emerging national states managed to strike a balance between the two approaches, combining the scientific humanist approach with an appreciation for the exigencies of practice and for the existence of local customary laws. This combined approach is e.g. manifest in some of our best-known Roman Dutch authorities such as Voet, Van Bynkershoek, etc. The dichotomy took on another form when especially in Germany the

natural law school emerged, preaching the gospel of the ideal man-created law against which all laws should be measured; on the other side of the spectrum, we find the pandectists who refined the work of adapting Roman law to new circumstances and who maintained, through the medium of Von Savigny's historical school, that law should grow naturally in accordance with the "Volksgeist" and should not be "manufactured" in the form of a rational abstract ideal system, through legislation or otherwise. The two streams partially merged when in the nineteenth century the ideals of the natural law school, together with other factors, led to the great codification movement and the ideas of the naturalists were taken up into the various national codes together with the fruit of the labour of the pandectists and the other national jurists. Since codification and up to the present day, the difference between the approach, are not so marked any more but still manifest themselves in various ways. One of these ways is the battle around Roman law: should this still be taught as an important link with the past, or only as a purely historical study, the so-called neo humanism, or not at all? Another disputed question is whether, and in how far, universities should cater for the exigencies of practice; thus we find that in some countries university studies are followed, and rounded off, by some form of in practice training and a state or professional examination which examines the candidate's practical knowledge. Finally, in a wider compass, we see a struggle between positivists who are quite content to study and teach the national code as it is, and those who through the medium of comparative law seek to achieve a supra-national law or at least a harmonisation of the various national laws - in other words, a modern version of the old ius commune or of the natural law idea.

In England, for various historical reasons, the dichotomy between the practical and the idealist approach to the law, though just as sharp as elsewhere, never led to the same struggles as in the rest of Europe. The Common Law of England was an indigenous creature of the courts and as such accepted, as the name implies, by the whole population. From earliest times too, it had been regarded as the courts' preserve to teach the law to aspirant lawyers by the system of "reading" the law in the inns of court. When in the 12th century Vacarius came to teach the new European gospel of the glossa at Oxford University, the Common Lawyers for various reasons, found it easy to minimise the influence of Roman law; in fact, at one stage the teaching of Roman law at universities was forbidden by the King. However, this marked the beginning of a clear division of tasks: the inns of courts were to continue to teach

the common law and its practice, while the universities were to look after the scientific or theoretical study of the law. It is only in comparatively recent times that aspirant lawyers have become accustomed to regard the two as complimentary: it is now customary to study law, in all its aspects, at university before proceeding to the inns of court or, in the case of attorneys, to the practical law school. But the sharp division between the university approach and the practical approach is still visible in places; thus e.g. academic writings on the law carry very little weight in the English courts in contrast with the Continent where the professors' influence of the law has at most times been considerable. So, too, there are differences of opinion with regard to the question how far, if at all, a university training should help prepare a student for later practice. And a crisis around the study and teaching of Roman law, which has been such a striking characteristic of European history, exists in England as well: while for obvious reasons being regarded as a purely historical study and therefore forever on the defensive, there are now those who see it as the vehicle for facilitating the harmonisation between the laws of England and those of its EEC partners.

Finally, in South Africa the dispute, although waged over the same issues, moved along different battle lines as a result of historical and local factors. It is a cliché to state that South African law rests on a Western European foundation, namely Roman Dutch law, but has over the ages undergone a considerable English influence. Therefore, also as regards the attitude towards legal study and teaching we have inherited a double or mixed tradition. The English influence was especially strong in the 19th Century, when most legal practitioners had undergone their training in England and most of the appointments on the Bench came from their ranks. No wonder then that the syllabus for the Certificates in Law and Jurisprudence, the examinations for which were to be conducted by the University of South Africa after its foundation in 1873, named the study of the Common Law as an important ingredient. This Anglicisation had certain immediate implications for the study of law: not only did a considerable part of Roman-Dutch law vanish before the English onslaught, but an almost more penetrative influence was exercised with regard to the approach to the study of law. In this regard reference should be made to the traditionally more practice-orientated nature of the Common Law and especially its casuistic character. The English Common Law was built up over centuries by the English courts by means of their decisions which built up the law ad hoc from case to case. The result has been an inductive manner

of law finding: the legal principle or general rule is derived from a study of the relevant decisions and when a new rule is to be laid down in a decision, regard is had to the pedigree rather than the principle. This is in contrast with the Continental approach which before as well as after codification has always been, with academic lawyers as well as with the judiciary, to look first at the principle or rule before applying it to the facts in question; in other words, we have a deductive method in which the solution for a legal problem is deduced from the general rules. Here, then, the principle counts for more than the pedigree. When the first "teaching" universities were founded in 1916, these different approaches came to the fore in these as well. Following upon the founding of a centralised Appeal Court which, though still strongly under the influence of the 19th Century tradition, still endeavoured to halt further English encroachment, a similar reaction came to the fore at especially the Afrikaans universities. At Stellenbosch and later on the others as well, whose law professors had mostly had their training at Continental universities, especially in Holland, emphasised the fundamentalist and what they regarded as the more logical and scientific approach of Roman Dutch law. The English universities again albeit with certain conspicuous individual exceptions, tended more towards the casuistic and more case law-orientated approach of the Common law. With the passing of the years, the sharp division between these two approaches faded, but remains thereof still play a role today, as we shall remark later on. On certain fundamentals all are agreed: the University's primary task is the scientific and academic study of the law, while it rests in principle with the legal practitioners to teach candidate lawyers the skills and techniques needed in practice. But within these parameters there are diverging views as to what branches of the law should (or should not) be studied and taught at the universities and the way in which it should be done.

Where then, amidst all these currents and views, does the Unisa law school fit in?

It is an old and well-known story how academic eyebrows were lifted when in 1946 Unisa started on its teaching task. The doubts expressed with regard to the viability of effectiveness of the new method of teletuition, were also applied to legal education. How this suspicion was overcome over the years, is a long and familiar story which is not directly relevant here. Perhaps I may cite, as an illustration, the case of a very well-known academician who

until well into the sixties expressed his conviction that law simply could not be taught "by correspondence", as he called it, and who consistently omitted Unisa's name wherever law faculties were listed. Within the University itself, for many years the need was felt to nominate colleagues from other universities on the Faculty Board to ensure the maintenance of standards. Surely it is not presumptuous to say that this suspicion has now been allayed mostly; proof of this is not only the large number of our law students, but also the calibre of the Faculty's lecturers and its reputation amongst the public as well as the academic world and the legal professions. If the proof of the pudding is in the eating, surely Unisa has proved that teaching law by means of teletuition is possible by teaching thousands of students in this way. Figures never tell the full story and can moreover be boring, but it is still significant to show that by 1967, 1892 students were registered for law degrees and diplomas; this figure had risen to 3373 in 1972 and had in 1986 reached the figure of 5378. The annual number of degrees and diplomas conferred had in the same periods risen from 81 to 227 to 283. How many graduates in total Unisa has produced since 1946 I have not been willing or able to ascertain, but it certainly amounts to thousands and we know that many of them play their role in the various branches of the legal profession with distinction. Let me then devote the last part of this lecture to a discussion of the methods used by Unisa's law faculty in this training, also with reference to the dichotomy in the fundamental approaches sketched earlier on. In other words: how, if at all, has Unisa chosen sides in the dispute between those favouring an academic or theoretical or elegant approach to the science and study of law on the one side, and those preferring a practical or utilitarian approach on the other? And in the light of such a premise, what exactly is taught there, and how? You will appreciate that I cannot speak for every individual lecturer in the Faculty and perhaps I should also point out that some startingpoints were not always ab initio adopted consciously, but were rather the outcome of a gradual development under the influence of many factors; some positions I take, let me be honest, may possibly be based on more than a little wishful thinking ...

Whether this happened accidentally or not, the fact is that at first and especially in the sixties when the University's growth really started to accelerate, most appointments in the Law Faculty came from the ranks of jurists with a background of training at Afrikaans and in many cases also Continental universities. This, I think, is the main reason why from the

beginning the approach was the fundamentalist or theoretical one. This means that in the teaching process, the main emphasis was on imparting to students a feeling for and knowledge of the concepts, principles and systematics of the law, and in conjunction of the methods of thought needed to apply such knowledge to a factual situation. This is in contrast to the more casuistic method of the Anglo-American tradition which emphasises the rules of positive law as deduced from a study of case law in particular. This does not mean that we at Unisa, as I shall endeavour to show later on, regard this source of law as unimportant or neglect it: no approach is ever wholly white or black. But very definitely the emphasis is on the systematics and logic of the legal rules rather than a ready knowledge of its details.

The attitude of Unisa's Law Faculty with regard to the two central issues, viz. what must be taught and how, is in consequence largely the outcome of this fundamental approach. First then, the question as to what is taught - or as the question is sometimes put: what courses belong in the curricula of a university law degree or diploma? Or even before this: what diplomas and/or degrees belong at a university? Now, the fact is that all universities agree on that one point, namely that it is a university's primary task to impart to students a basic knowledge of the law and an ability to think in juridical terms rather than the skills and techniques used in practice which therefore should be learnt in practice. On the other hand all agree that universities after all are training the student for a profession and that this should be kept in mind when drawing up curricula; in other words, a measure of practice-orientated training (which is not necessarily the same as practical training) is of the essence. But within the bounds of this consensus there is ample room for differences in accentuation.

For many years, the only law degree offered in South Africa was the LLB degree, which was and is a post-graduate or second Bachelor's degree traditionally preceded by a degree in another faculty - usually a BA or a B Com. This combination was seen to satisfy the need for a broad liberal background for an aspirant lawyer. The alternatives were diplomas or certificates in law for attorneys and public servants, the contents of which were prescribed by law and whose examinations were conducted by the statutory body concerned as well as by the universities. The ideal of a "pure" interdisciplinary background for lawyers was compromised for the first time when quite early on,

legal courses were taken up into the preceding first bachelor's degree, making it a BA (Law) or B Com (Law), to the point where the major subjects for that degree were legal so as to shorten the succeeding LLB curriculum to two years. This pattern was followed by Unisa, except that in 1960 the LLB curriculum was lengthened by one year, not because of the University's "part-time" status, but because even then it was thought that three years' law courses was not enough to provide for the broadening scope of the various branches of the law and the emerging new fields, especially in Mercantile law. Then in the early sixties examinations for the diplomas or certificates in law ceased to be conducted by the Board for Professional Examinations and were left entirely to the universities who in consequence started to examine the possibility of replacing these diplomas, or at least supplementing them, with a first degree in law. When the B Iuris saw the light, Unisa was one of the first, after a short hesitation, to introduce that degree in 1965. This constituted an overt if originally a somewhat reluctant recognition of the fact that the needs of a rapidly developing community, and with it a knowledge explosion also in the legal field, had put paid to the luxury of insisting always on a liberal non-legal background for all lawyers - although that remained, and remains, a possibility and the ideal until today. The new ways were further accentuated when the B Proc degree, as another first degree in law and the minimum qualification for attorneys, was introduced in 1971. At least one university has consistently refused to follow these developments and has stuck to the BA-LLB or B Com-LLB pattern, while other universities have in recent years expressed, and in some instances fulfilled, the hope to revert to that pattern. While sharing the view that ideally the LLB should be the qualification for all careers in law, Unisa's law faculty remains convinced that in today's circumstances, where qualified people in all communities are urgently needed and where new developments in the law become more important every day, it is impracticable to put back the clock; first degrees in law, and with it professional specialisation at an earlier stage of university education, have come to stay. It must be remembered here that in this respect Unisa is in a position which differs sharply from that of residential universities. Not only do we have to cater for the needs of all the communities in the Southern African kaleidoscope, but in most instances our students are older and sometimes already qualified people, well established in a career and with a very clear view of their wants and expectations; for these, to insist on years of background study would not only be impracticable but self-defeating.

This, however, does not mean that Unisa is not sensitive to the need for a broad-based education for lawyers; after all, many of them will be playing an important social and cultural role in their respective communities. For this we try to cater by means of the contents of the degree curricula, e.e. the courses of which they consist, and the contents of the courses themselves. On this, too, there is no unanimity between the universities and amongst the most hotly debated issues at the 1983 legal conference which has already been mentioned, was the question what the core courses of a legal degree should be and in how far practice-orientated courses on the one hand and non-legal courses on the other should be included in the law curricula. Now, as far as Unisa is concerned, this question was to a large extent resolved when after long discussions and consultation between the universities and the professions concerned, the minimum requirements for the Public Service Examinations, and hence the B Iuris degree, and the B Proc degree were laid down by the Board for the Recognition of Examinations in Law. These, in my opinion, contain what must be the core courses of a first degree in law and are as such perfectly acceptable to our Faculty. They have met with quite some criticism: mostly aimed at their very nature as a first law degree which, as I have explained, has been put in question by some universities. As regards this point, the Unisa Faculty's point of view has already been expressed. Another difficulty encountered by many universities with regard to these two degrees, especially the B Proc, is that they contain quite a number of courses which traditionally used to be regarded as LLB courses - thus creating a logistical problem in that some universities had difficulty in structuring a LLB curriculum following upon these first law degrees. Whatever the merits or demerits of the ways in which this problem was solved elsewhere, the fact is that it more or less solved itself at Unisa by the simple expedient of having had a four-year LLB curriculum all along: the B Iuris or B Proc degree curricula cover more or less the first two years of the LLB curriculum, that is the basic law courses which should form part of any law degree, while the final two years of the LLB at Unisa now constitute, especially after a thorough restructuring some five years ago, the real post-graduate part of the degree. In these two years students are firstly expected to build on these foundations by completing courses which, it is felt, any "compleat" lawyer should master before venturing into the legal world, and secondly, to start "specializing" in the sense that they are given the opportunity to choose amongst a large number of elective courses in the light of what they envisage as their future career. This

structure of half-course papers in the latter part of the LLB has been, we believe, a conspicuous success and one that in some form or another has been followed by a number of universities. In structuring the LLB in this way, and I want to emphasize this very strongly because it serves as a justification for all our degree curricula, we have been led by a fundamentalist approach enounced by spokesmen for our Faculty over many years, namely the conviction that law is a central element in any society and that similarly the concept of law, and legal science, and therefore all legal courses, if presented in the right way, must be regarded as basic cultural studies. I re-emphasize that this is very central in our thinking: we disagree strongly with the approach of the Department of National Education according to which certain arts and science courses are singled out as basic and the rest is at best relegated to the status of contextually basic subjects and at worst described as applied science. To put it in a nutshell by way of example: a course in legal history or legal philosophy, if presented in the right way, can be just as basic and educative as the ordinary course in history or philosophy. Once that is accepted, of course, the problem of structuring a liberally-based curriculum becomes a lot easier: the whole range of law courses, including those supposedly practice-orientated, become part of a truly broad-based university education. To mention but a few more examples: a course in criminal procedure, traditionally an example of a practice-orientated course, can do more to sharpen a student's regard for human rights and their protection than any other; or the supposedly "commercial" course in tax law can, more than almost any non-legal course, serve to demonstrate how the law can serve national political and social ends. These few examples, I hope, has shown how Unisa approaches its law teaching and has demonstrated why we have never unduly worried about the non-legal content or prerequisites of our law degrees. That is why we are quite satisfied with our first law degrees, and, that is why, while happily complying with the generally accepted and laid down requirements with regard to non-legal courses (and especially the language requirements) we do not feel any need for further restrictions or requirements in this regard. Finally, this approach, we hope, will explain why Unisa took the lead in abolishing a university course in Latin as a requirement for the LLB degree: this is such a much-disputed and complex question that on this occasion I do not want to go into it any more deeply. But clearly, on this approach, if Latin serves an academic, cultural and paedagogic purpose, as we believe it does, such purposes can in the Unisa context also be served by other courses.

And this, finally, brings me to the question as to the way in which law is taught at Unisa. I shall try to be brief on this: once the approach to curricula and course contents has been explained, the teaching method should be more or less self-explanatory. How the basic scientific approach to law subjects comes to fruition in course presentation, is not demonstrable in a lecture like this. It depends very much on the vision, expertise, enthusiasm and teaching ability of the lecturer concerned and his supporting colleagues. Let me just put Unisa's traditional teaching pattern into perspective as far as law teaching is concerned. In the continental and academic pattern espoused earlier on, the comprehensive study guide, which is the central focus of all the law courses, has taken the place of the continental magisterial lecture. This approach has been re-inforced by the increasing cost of legal textbooks, which we feel have become more or less dispensable, especially in the case of beginners' courses - after all, isn't it our experience that many of our students, and even outsiders, use our study guides, legally or illegally, as ready reference books? The Socratic method, adopted by some universities according to the example of Anglo-American universities, tries to teach law to students at the hand of court decisions which then serve to illustrate the typical process of law-finding by the judges and the extrapolation of legal rules from these findings. This approach is unacceptable to the Unisa Law Faculty in view of its fundamental approach explained earlier on, and also (let's be honest) because of the practical problems inherent in such an approach in tele-tuition. We do of course feel the need to teach students how to approach and study case law, and this, we found, could not be handled simply by referring students to the law reports in the hope that they would have access to such reports in private libraries and magistrates' courts all over the country. This is not always possible, and we therefore had recourse to the very successful expedient of compiling case books for students' use - thus serving not only as teaching tools but also as a selection of compulsory reading. There are further ways of fostering what we consider to be an essential element of practical training. The use of our law clinics will be explained elsewhere by one of my colleagues. Other vehicles are the ones common to all Unisa departments: the two-way communication by way of assignments and the tutor's comments thereon, group visits, and tutorial letters in which problems are discussed and new developments such as new legislation and court decisions brought to students' attention. The same ends are at least partly served by the Faculty's in-house journal *Codicillus* which is also used to practise the basic subject-approach in law to which has been alluded earlier on: the accent in the articles is

often on the more "cultural" aspects of the law such as comparative law, history, sociology of law, etcetera. An important element in the training of LLB students is the compulsory dissertation which not only serves to teach a student how to write and how to do independent research, but often takes on a very practical slant, eg. by requiring him to write a reasoned opinion on a factual problem. Finally, mention may be made of the rule which makes it possible for LLB students to complete a number of papers by way of an oral examination. This opportunity is used very extensively by students and was originally introduced as the time-honoured method of testing whether the future lawyer is able "to think on his feet"; it has turned out to contain an added bonus in that it is now seen as a valuable training aid - the discussions the examination entails and the insight it gives to students in the way lecturers confront them with problems and how these should be tackled, serve them in very good stead when confronted by the written examination.

From what has been said, it can be seen that the methods used are flexible enough to serve differences in approach. At pregraduate level, that is in the more basic courses, the accent will be on principles and basic rules while at LLB level, the stress will be more on the practical and applied approach and this differentiation will come to the fore in all the communicative channels used. Distance education in law is not a struggle to overcome the alleged drawbacks of a lack of personal contact; it is rather to be seen as a different kind of teaching, one in which different tools are used to come to the same result: a cultured person with a basic knowledge of the principles and concepts of the law and with the ability to find the law, to think like a lawyer and to handle the legal problems with which he will be confronted. No doubt there is room for improvement, and new techniques such as sound cassettes, conference telephone, video, etc. will be taken up into the arsenal of weapons. In the meantime, we are satisfied that the products we turn out are able to fill their rightful place in the legal world outside and amply justify Unisa's important role in South African legal education.

TOWARDS INTEGRATION IN LEGAL EDUCATION : AN INTRODUCTION TO PRACTICE

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1. INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, legal education is seen to encompass:

- (i) Theoretical instruction (the academic component);
- (ii) Training in professional skills (the practical training component);
- (iii) Instruction directed towards the development of a sense of professionalism (the component of "professionalisation");
- (iv) Post-admission training (the continuing legal education component).

Whilst the interrelationship between these components and their underlying methodologies has been widely debated, the need to integrate all aspects of legal education has been recognised.¹

In South Africa the responsibility for practical training and professional development is seen to rest with the practising profession and is effected with regard to the attorneys' profession, by means of a system of articles of clerkship and practical courses and in respect of advocates, by a system of pupillage. In the main then, practical and professional training of lawyers in South Africa is divorced from their academic education. Nevertheless, there has been a measure of integration in the fostering of law clinics and the inclusion in LLB curricula of electives with a practical orientation. Clinical programmes which have been mounted at most of the South African Universities over the past decade have been modelled mainly on the pattern of American law schools.²

2. STUDENT LAW CLINICS : OBJECTIVES AND METHODS

The introduction of clinical service programmes may be seen as a move away from the traditional "rule-orientated" approach to legal education.³ In the clinical context the student is made aware of the importance of social, economic and political considerations in the

'Lawyering' process; the significance attached to skills development is highlighted and by the very nature of law clinics a sensitivity to the problems and needs of others is engendered.

Thus, while an important objective of a clinical service programme would be the provision of legal aid,⁴ the clinical experience as a means of skills training has generally been recognised.⁵ More specifically the skills involved in student participation in law clinics would include interviewing, fact-gathering (an analytical, intellectual skill⁶ which students ideally will acquire early on in their academic studies), drafting, negotiation and trial advocacy. With regard to these practical skills the catchword is "learning by doing"⁷ which may be effected in the clinical programme either by actual experience, for example writing letters for clients or by simulation,⁸ for example a mock trial, aimed at developing the skills of drafting and advocacy respectively.

Another structional objective in legal education is to inculcate in the attitude of professionalism in students. At the same time it is necessary to recognise that a professional approach should not exclude sensitivity. On the contrary, since the law and the legal system are essentially concerned with human beings, prospective lawyers need the skills and sensitivity to relate on a personal level not only to clients but to all the other actors in the legal drama - other lawyers, state officials and the public at large. Training in inter-personal dynamics particularly when preparing lawyers for a multi-cultural society is an important educational goal. The clinical experience serves to realise these objectives.

Finally, with regard to participation in law clinics within an integrated programme of legal education, an important objective is to develop further the student's critical faculties that ideally will already have been stimulated early on in his university studies.

In the words of an American professor of law "Critique is a university's reason for being, its identifying characteristic, and the only one of its multiple functions it fails to perform at the price of being a university. Stripped of its critical role, the university is a mere socializing agent, an instrument of prevailing orthodoxy, engaged only in legitimization and control".

In the context of the law this would involve, inter alia, "analyzing and evaluating the patterns and theories immanent in the methods lawyers use to perform and think about skill practices against conceptions of what would be better", as well an assessment of the legal system as a whole which in turn requires consideration of the "nature of a fair and just legal system and the role of lawyer practices in operating and improving it".⁹

3. TOWARDS INTEGRATION - THE HOLISTIC APPROACH

Attempts by universities, at home and abroad, to effect integration have resulted in the introduction of clinical service programmes and the inclusion in curricula of electives with a practical orientation. In keeping with modern trends and mindful of the need to involve law students in community service, the University of South Africa has introduced into the LLB curriculum, the paper 'Introduction to Legal Practice' which can be offered only by students in conjunction with their service in a law clinic.

4. 'AN INTRODUCTION TO PRACTICE' - THE PAPER IN OUTLINE

The paper is offered as an elective in the LLB curriculum and comprises a practical and theoretical component. Since in terms of the syllabus, the practical work must be at an "approved clinic and/or small claims courts" and this can at present only be done at law clinics in Cape Town, Durban, Pretoria, Springs and (very recently) Alexandria, only students within reach of one of these centres will be in a position to enrol for the paper.

As determined in the syllabus the paper involves:

SECTION A : THEORY

- (a) Introduction; the origin and history of legal practice;
- (b) Theory of and introduction to the technique of compiling legislation (including subordinate legislation), wills, contracts and pleadings ;
- (c) Professional ethics; the duties of the legal practitioner and other court officials; unprofessional conduct;
- (d) Introduction to the practice of conducting interviews and negotiations ;
- (e) Legal aid: history, theory and practice ; and
- (f) Legal rules and procedure regarding various tribunal and arbitration proceedings.

SECTION B : PRACTICAL

- (a) Practical year-work at an approved clinic and/or small claims courts, which must be reported on;
- (b) Participation in a "litigation workshop", including dealing with the various segmentations of a hearing and the arguing of an appeal.

A student must obtain at least 50% for the practical section of the paper to be admitted to the examination on the theoretical section.

There was initial resistance within the faculty to the idea of introducing a paper of this nature. The reasons were twofold: first it was felt that a course involving practical skills was academically unacceptable and secondly even if a course of this nature could be justified in principle, practical problems of presenting this paper in a university engaged in distance education

were deemed to be insurmountable. The perceived difficulties are more apparent than real. The argument, for example, that the mentor in a Skills Programme must be in personal contact with his student is sound but this is a general principle which applies in any case with regard to all courses offered by the university and it is trite that personal contact is not necessarily physical contact. As in other disciplines and courses, personal contact with students may be effected and maintained in various ways, for example by means of tutorial letters, telephone, audio-video cassettes and image-capturing. Of these, only image-capturing is at present not possible at Unisa. However, liaison with practitioners for the presentation of programmes with a practical/professional orientation is essential and this might seem to create problems in the context of distance education. Attempts to solve these problems will be discussed presently.

Although senior law students have been involved in the Unisa legal aid clinics since the inception of the Legal Aid Centre some six years ago,¹⁰ the paper was introduced only in 1986. Offered within the Department of Criminal Law the paper is presented by lecturers and legal aid officers of the Legal Aid Centre in conjunction with practitioners in the various centres already mentioned. The interest of the faculty in the Legal Practice paper is maintained in a 'watching brief' exercised by representatives of the five teaching departments who serve on the committee of the Centre and who, together with the legal aid officers, were responsible for drawing up the first study guide. A substantial contribution to the study guide was also made by a judge of the Supreme Court of South Africa. As well as the study guide and tutorial letters that deal with the theoretical component of the course, students receive course materials during the year. The course materials which include, for example, copies of various documents such as summonses, pro forma particulars of claim forms, and problem exercises, relate to the practical aspects of the course. A series of seminars is arranged

during the year. Attendance is compulsory. The seminars are skills rather than rule-orientated; knowledge of the relevant legal rules (the so-called 'black letter law') is assumed. The skills involve negotiation; drafting; pleadings in a civil case; core aspects of a criminal trial and trial advocacy. Students are informed prior to the seminar of the topic/s to be covered and are required to prepare for the seminar; in some instances they must submit practical exercises in this regard. The seminars are conducted on a decentralised basis at the various centres mainly by practising lawyers and other professionals. As well as attending seminars, students are involved in practical work in the small claims court on a roster basis and of course also assist with clients' cases in the legal aid clinics. The legal aid officers/lecturers in the Legal Aid Centre based in Pretoria, co-ordinate the practical training. This necessitates visits to the various centres during the course of the year in order to monitor student progress. This is done in conjunction with the supervisor/mentor who, as already mentioned, is a practitioner, at each centre.

Evaluation is on an on-going basis and a satisfactory report by the student of his activities is a pre-requisite to admission to the examination. The examination in October/November which forms part of the theoretical component of the course is a three-hour written exam.

Mention has been made of the potential problems with regard to liaison with practitioners in the presentation of practical programmes. Contact is maintained by means of written instructions and personal contact by the legal aid officer twice or three times during the year. However, it is difficult after only a very limited experience so far, to determine whether this limited contact is satisfactory. In resolving this and other problems, it seems recourse will have to be made to technology, for example,

a facsimile system which allows the quick transfer of documents which may be amended in the process; image-capturing and video-conference.

Practical skills training in a clinical setting is notoriously expensive,¹¹ mainly because it is important that mentor/student ratio should be small. At present with a student enrolment of some forty students¹² and excluding the practitioner-mentor, the ratio is 20:1 and far too large. Here too expenses can be cut, it is submitted, by use of technology while at the same time allowing for participation within a smaller group. For example, with regard to interviewing skills say, a video-tape may be made of a student class participating in Pretoria; distributed for critique to students in all the centres; an exercise set and in a simulated interview¹³ situation conducted by two or three students in other centres the student response can be recorded on an audio-cassette and returned to the lecturer in Pretoria. Audio-video facilities are already available at Unisa.

A very real problem that is widely recognised and not confined to Unisa¹⁴ is "teaching the teachers". At present briefing is on a less formal basis but possibly in future a manual will have to be prepared.

Although it is early days yet, the prospect of a successful undertaking is good. Student interest is high (since only a limited number of students can be accommodated in the clinical programme, selection is on the basis of study record) and there is no doubt that students not only fulfill a real service to the community but are better equipped to continue with their legal education.¹⁵ By offering this paper, Unisa, like other South African universities¹⁶ has recognised the need to integrate theory and practical skills programmes within academia. This has meant an integration of

methodology and by the nature of clinical service programmes, has led to our students being exposed to disciplines other than law. For example, steps towards the closer co-operation with lecturers and students in the Department of Social Work have already been taken. Moreover presentation of the paper has involved not only contact with but a very valuable and much appreciated contribution by the practising profession, bench and bar.

Footnotes

1. J.C. van der Walt and K.A. Wilson : "The Training of Candidate Attorneys in South Africa" - Report to the Association of Law Societies of S.A.; August 1983.
2. A recent survey of legal education in the U.S.A. which alone among the common law jurisdictions includes training in practical skills in the academic component; was made by Professor Barry Dean. A copy of his unpublished report "Searching for Competence" (1982) to the Attorneys, Notaries and Conveyancers Fidelity Guarantee Funds, was kindly made available to the writer.
3. See, for example, Phil Harris : "Curriculum Development in Legal studies" in The Law Teacher Vol 20 1986 pp. 91-94.
4. Defined by Prof McQuoid-Mason as "the gratuitous provision of legal assistance to persons who cannot afford to employ the services of legal practitioners"; McQuoid-Mason: An outline of legal aid in South Africa; Butterworths; (1982) 1.
5. Cp. D. Ross: "Legal skills courses in Australia - their need, their value and their prospects" in Australian Law Journal (1975) 327 and R.A.F. Stewart : "Legal education" in Australian Law Journal (1977) 470.
6. See W. Twining : "Taking Facts Seriously" in Essays on Legal Education ed. Neil Gold; Butterworths; (1982) 51.
7. See Robyn M Duncan : "Teaching Legal Skills for Transfer of Learning" in The Journal of Professional Legal Education - Australia; (1984) 64.
8. Russel Stewart : "Making Simulating Stimulating" in The Journal of Professional Legal Education - Australia (1985) 51.
9. Robert J. Condlin : "Tastes Great, Less Filling : The Law School Clinic and Political Critique" in Journal of Legal Education 36 (1986) 45 at pp. 48 50.
10. I.M. Bredenkamp : "Regshulp en Unisa se Regshulpentrum" in Codicillus May (1982) 22.
11. Without sponsorship and donations from private enterprise the Unisa venture would not have been possible.
12. In 1986 the student enrolment was 44 : 30 students were assigned to clinics in the PWV area, and 7 students were accommodated in Cape Town and Durban respectively.
13. See, for example, the articles by Christopher Roper and Gary Tamsitt on "Teaching Negotiating" in The Journal of Professional Legal Education - Australia (1983) pp. 51 59 and Gary Tamsitt "Methods of Instruction in Interviewing and counselling Negotiation" in

The Journal of Professional Legal Education Australia (1986) 33.

14. Sandra A. Ratcliff : "Teaching the Teachers" in The Journal of Professional Legal Education Australia (1985) 47.
15. "The Goals of the Education and Training for Candidate Attorneys in the Republic of South Africa" DE REBUS March 1983 p. 117.
16. The University of Pretoria, for example, offers a LLB elective "Prokureurspraktyk" a theoretical paper which can only be done in conjunction with the practical paper "Regspraktyk".

THE TEACHING OF THE PRACTICAL COMPONENT OF PHYSICS
IN DISTANCE EDUCATION

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Introduction

Practical work in an undergraduate course in Physics has three objectives:

- a) to demonstrate theoretical concepts in Physics;
- b) to make students familiar with apparatus; and
- c) to teach students how to execute experiments.

Practical work can therefore be regarded as an essential component of the training of Physics students. It goes without saying that distance education poses unique problems in this regard. Ever since its establishment in 1967, the Physics Department at Unisa has therefore devoted considerable attention to the development of a system for the meaningful presentation of the practical component of Physics.

At first the laboratories of other Universities and Technical Colleges were used. Students were expected to make their own arrangements and to either attend the practicals together with students of the university concerned or at times arranged in advance. This system was followed for four years, but proved to be highly unsatisfactory. Firstly, a uniform syllabus was an impossibility since each university prescribed its own set of experiments. In the second place, in view of the fact that students often had to cover great distances and were hampered by job obligations, they often found themselves unable to attend the practical classes every week. Finally, the meaningful and fair examination of students proved to be impossible. We soon realised that we would have to offer the practical courses ourselves. The necessary facilities were therefore incorporated in the planning of the new laboratory building.

Study material and work programme

The practical component of Physics at the first year level constitutes a separate module. The syllabus as a whole is covered by a Study Guide which includes the following:

- a) The mathematical and statistical background knowledge required by students to enable them to analyse experimental results and understand the relevant theory.
- b) A detailed discussion of the writing of a scientific report.
- c) A brief description of each experiment to be conducted during the laboratory course.
- d) A summary of the underlying theory which is also discussed in the theoretical modules.
- e) Descriptions of the apparatus to be used. These descriptions are accompanied by sketches and photographs.
- f) A number of selected questions aimed at testing the student's insight and stimulating his thinking.
- g) A discussion of some demonstration apparatus developed by the Department and installed within the reach of students in the laboratory building.

In the first semester students are required to complete three assignments. These assignments are based on questions provided in the Study Guide. Students who have submitted satisfactory assignments are admitted to the laboratory course. These students then receive a tutorial letter in which the procedure to be followed in the laboratory course is explained in full detail.

Laboratory course

The laboratory course is presented in the first two weeks of August. The students are divided into nine groups and each group does nine experiments. These experiments are selected in such a way that they cover the most important aspects of the three theoretical modules. In the first nine days daily activities include the following:

- a) In the first 30 minutes lecturers demonstrate the use of the apparatus and provide guidelines with regard to the analysis of results as well as the objectives to be pursued. The underlying theory is also discussed in brief.

- b) In the next 15 minutes the students' knowledge of the relevant theory is tested. The Department has accumulated a question bank and the selection of questions is done by computer. The paper consists of multiple choice questions only. The student answers the questions on a computer response card. As soon as the test is completed, it is marked by computer and the results made available to the students.
- c) The next three hours are devoted to the execution of the experiments. All experiments are done under the supervision of lecturers. The lecturers are available at all times if students should have any questions or experience any problems. Lecturers also use this opportunity to stimulate the students' thinking by pointing out interesting aspects of the experiment and asking probing questions.
- d) Afterwards students start analysing their results and writing a brief and concise report.
- e) The experiment completed the previous day is marked in the presence of the student concerned. At the same time the lecturer uses the opportunity to discuss mistakes and problem areas with the student.
- f) Afternoons are devoted to problem solving sessions. Students are given a period of two hours in which to solve selected problems. All lecturers are involved in this exercise and every student receives personal attention. The problems are later solved by a lecturer, with particular emphasis on factors with which students experienced difficulty.

Examination

On the last day of the laboratory course students write a two hour examination. This paper covers all aspects of the laboratory course. The total mark for this module is composed of the student's marks for the written examination, the multiple choice tests and the execution of the experiments.

Evaluation of the system

The presentation of the practical component of this subject meets all the requirements set out in the Introduction. It is definitely in no way inferior to the system traditionally used at residential universities. It also has the major advantage that students are already familiar with the relevant theory by the time they start executing experiments. The student therefore usually has a more positive approach and has the necessary background knowledge to make more sophisticated observations.

Planning for the future

Since the role of the microcomputer is becoming more and more important every day, not only in the field of Physics, but also in everyday life, we should like to offer students the opportunity to obtain practical experience in the use of the microcomputer. This can be done by means of the execution of experiments that are interfaced to the computer. A start has already been made in this regard since one of the nine experiments is currently done in this way.

Computer based education is introduced gradually. The use of the computer as educational aid has definite advantages, such as the simulation of physical phenomena which can be manipulated by the student. Many students already have access to microcomputers, and the latter may therefore play a major role in the presentation of practical modules in future.

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